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SOCIAL CHANGES IN 1932

Edited by

WILLIAM F. OGBURN



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SOCIAL CHANGES IN 1932

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INTRODUCTION

The many significant economic events of the last two or three years have had numerous influences on social institutions. They affect inventions and discoveries, immigration, births and deaths, social legislation, public health movements, rural conditions, the family, crime rates, church membership, and church attendance. Indeed, there are few aspects of our social life that have not been markedly affected by this most severe economic depression of modern times. The papers in this volume indicate many of these changes and their effects. The extremely dramatic events, which began in the latter part of February and reached a climax in the most extensive closing of banks ever known, have particularly significant social effects. These, however, are not recorded in this volume, which is restricted to 1932. Some time has to elapse after an event for the data to be collected and recorded so that it is possible to submit them to scientific analyses. News events are almost instantaneous, but there must necessarily be a lag before the scientific analyses can occur.

The *American Journal of Sociology* has itself been influenced by these economic changes, and a policy of retrenchment in the interests of economy has affected the size of this special issue. We have had to reduce the number of articles, as it did not seem possible to reduce the length of the articles further and have them of any scientific merit. Indeed, it seemed desirable to increase the length. In order to do this, some of the topics covered regularly in the annual "Social

Change" issue have been omitted. These topics omitted this year will be included in next year's special issue, it is planned. And some of the topics covered in the current issue will be omitted next year, and by this method of alternating articles it will be possible to give more attention to each particular subject. In some cases the omission of certain topics is not a particularly serious loss because extensive data are not always collected every year in sufficient volume to note significant changes, and a two-year interval will show the changes more clearly. This is true, for instance, in the case of social legislation. Most of our state legislatures meet only once in two years.

The rapidity of modern changes gives to these articles appearing in this issue a special value. Do these changes of the last two or three years indicate a general trend or a fluctuation around a trend? It seems very probable that two or three years are not sufficient from the point of view of time to establish a trend although they may affect the trend somewhat. Such events are more probably a fluctuation around a trend. In any case this particular point should be borne in mind in reading the articles that follow.

WILLIAM FIELDING OGBURN

POPULATION

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ABSTRACT

Due primarily to an increase in net emigration, the downward trend of population growth in the United States continued in 1932. Internal movements appear to have increased the rural population more rapidly than the total population, resulting in a decline in urban numbers during the year. Continuing past trends of expectation of life and specific birth-rates in various ways, making different assumptions for net immigration, and computing the resulting population indicates the United States is unlikely to have over 150,000,000 inhabitants by 1980, and perhaps as few as 126,500,000.

ANNUAL GROWTH

The slowing up of population growth in the United States which became evident nearly ten years ago continued during 1932. Judging from the twelve states which have already reported births and deaths for 1932, the increase in population amounted to about 830,000, slightly under the increase of 875,000 during 1931, but far below that of 2,100,000 during 1923 (Table I). Excepting only the war-time influenza year of 1918, growth during 1931 and 1932 certainly has been smaller than during any other year since 1900, and probably since 1880, for even from 1870 to 1880 the average annual increase was 1,034,000. The decline from 1931 is only 5 per cent, which is not large, but the drop of 60 per cent since 1923 is startling. Should growth continue at about 800,000 annually for the remainder of this decade, the population will amount to about 131,000,000 in 1940 compared with 122,775,000 in 1930. But if the downward trend from 1923 to 1932 should continue, there will be fewer than 130,000,000 persons in 1940, and little increase thereafter.

The decline of about 40,000 in growth from 1931 to 1932 came about almost entirely through a decrease in immigration. During 1931 the excess of citizens and aliens departing from the United States over those arriving amounted to about 127,000, but during 1932 to about 165,000 (Table I). The last two years are the only ones on record in which alien departures exceeded arrivals; together with 1918 and 1919 they are the only ones in which total departures

exceeded total arrivals.[1] Considering fiscal years, the number of aliens entering in 1932 was 36,000, the smallest number since 1831, when 23,000 aliens arrived.[2]

TABLE I

ESTIMATED POPULATION GROWTH 1910–32*
(Thousands)

Year	Population January 1	Births†	Deaths	Natural Increase	Net Immigration‡	Population Growth§
1910	91,417	2,542	1,424	1,055	636	1,691
1911	93,108	2,588	1,369	1,156	213	1,369
1912	94,477	2,633	1,361	1,208	535	1,743
1913	96,220	2,674	1,402	1,207	892	2,099
1914	98,319	2,781	1,378	1,337	228	1,565
1915	99,884	2,800	1,389	1,344	55	1,399
1916	101,283	2,816	1,459	1,289	260	1,550
1917	102,833	2,821	1,501	1,250	4	1,254
1918	104,087	2,834	1,934	824	−217	607
1919	104,694	2,636	1,394	1,178	− 11	1,167
1920	105,861‖	2,848	1,433	1,389	445	1,834
1921	107,695	2,950	1,294	1,625	229	1,854
1922	109,549	2,781	1,331	1,423	274	1,698
1923	111,247	2,809	1,403	1,380	739	2,119
1924	113,366	2,875	1,367	1,481	313	1,794
1925	115,160	2,813	1,406	1,380	245	1,625
1926	116,785	2,750	1,476	1,250	352	1,602
1927	118,387	2,715	1,397	1,293	243	1,536
1928	119,923	2,612	1,490	1,080	246	1,326
1929	121,249	2,527	1,494	993	252	1,245
1930	122,494	2,569	1,439	1,108	96	1,204
1931	123,698	2,443	1,424	999	−127	872
1932	124,570	2,378¶	1,361¶	998¶	−165	833¶
1933	125,403¶					

* For 1910–31, based on Tables 64, 75, and 84 in Warren S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton, *Population Trends in the United States* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1933 [in press]).

For 1932, births and deaths are estimated from monthly reports received from twelve states; net immigration, from mimeographed reports of the Commissioner General of Immigration.

† These estimates of births assume no improvement in accuracy of registration, hence differ considerably from the estimates for 1920–30 shown in P. K. Whelpton, "Trends in Population Increase and Distribution during 1920–30," *American Journal of Sociology*, XXXVI, No. 6 (May, 1931), 867.

‡ Arrivals of citizens and aliens minus departures, for continental United States (excluding Alaska) in so far as possible.

§ Births and net immigration are decreased and deaths increased by 1.6 per cent for 1910–19 and 0.6 per cent for 1920–32 in order to make population growth calculated from these series agree with intercensal growth.

‖ The census population increased by 150,000 to allow for underenumeration of Negroes. Cf. T. J. Woofter, Jr., "What Is the Negro Rate of Increase," *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, XXVI, N.S., No. 176 (December, 1931), 461–62.

¶ Preliminary.

Natural increase in the United States was approximately the same in 1932 as in 1931, amounting to about 1,000,000 in each year. This

[1] The record of aliens departing begins in 1908 and of citizens departing in 1910.

[2] United States Bureau of Immigration, *Annual Report of the Commissioner General of Immigration* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1932), p. 186.

is approximately equal to the 1929 figure and well above that for 1918, but is below every other year since 1910, the differences varying from 55,000 in 1910 to 625,000 in 1921 (Table I).

Deaths during 1932 amounted to about 1,360,000 as compared with 1,424,000 in 1931. Since 1910 there have been only two years (1921 and 1922) with significantly fewer deaths, and only three years (1911, 1912, and 1924) with about the same number (Table I). Because the trend of deaths was slightly upward from 1910 to 1931[3] it is surprising that there has been a decline in deaths during the recent depression years. Presumably the undernourishment in families where workers have been unemployed and savings exhausted should increase deaths more than unemployment should decrease deaths from the accident and disease hazards of industry. Perhaps the most reasonable explanation of the situation is that more time is required to show the complete results of undernourishment and neglect. Adults and children may be suffering impairments the cumulative effect of which will be evident in the death-rate of future months and years.

Births during 1932 amounted to about 2,380,000 as compared with 2,443,000 during 1931, continuing the downward trend which has gone on fairly steadily since the high point of 2,950,000 in 1921 (Table I). They are now about as numerous as in 1908, in spite of the 40 per cent increase in population since that year. Because the decline in births averaged 68,000 annually from 1924 to 1929,[4] when times were better than they have been since, it may be surprising to many that the decrease from 1931 to 1932 did not exceed 65,000, for the depression might be expected to accelerate the decline considerably. Further study of the 1924–29 period may indicate that a lack of prosperity among farmers and increasing technological unemployment among city workers and miners were lowering births rapidly among these most fertile groups of the population during so-called "good times."

URBAN-RURAL DISTRIBUTION

The smaller increase of population during 1932 than 1931 represents the continuation of the downward trend begun almost a decade

[3] About 3,000 per year according to the method of least squares.

[4] Calculated according to the method of least squares.

ago. In contrast, the change that has taken place in the urban-rural distribution of the population during the last two or three years is in some respects a complete reversal of former trends.

Between the censuses of 1910 and 1920 there was some net movement of population away from farms. Although births exceeded deaths on farms and there was migration from cities and villages to farms, the estimated decrease of farm population in 10 years amounted to 463,000.[5] From 1920 to 1930 the same movements occurred on a much larger scale, the decrease of the farm population amounting to over 1,400,000.[6] Several causes played a part in reducing the size of the farm population so rapidly after 1920. Natural increase became smaller on farms as in the entire nation, the number of births declining considerably and the number of deaths rising somewhat.[7] In spite of this diminution in supply, the number of persons leaving farms for cities rose to a high mark in 1922 and remained there until the end of 1929, for in this period agriculture continued to increase in efficiency, expanded but little, and compared unfavorably from the standpoint of financial returns with urban business and industry.

Beginning some time in 1929 or 1930 the situation changed markedly; since then the farm population has become larger instead of smaller. Migration to farms during 1930 and 1931 only maintained the high level of previous years, although probably rising somewhat during 1932. Natural increase went up slightly, deaths having declined a little more rapidly than births. The chief change occurred in departures from farms, which fell from 2,080,000 during 1929 to less than 1,500,000 during 1931 and probably to an even lower figure during 1932. As a result of these shifts the farm population gained over 400,000 in 1930, about 650,000 in 1931, and probably between 700,000 and 900,000 in 1932.[8]

[5] C. J. Galpin and T. B. Manny, *The Agricultural Situation*, XVI, No. 11 (November 1, 1932), 1–5.

[6] The census figure of 1,169,000 adjusted to allow for the change in date of enumeration from January 1 in 1920 to April 1 in 1930, because of the seasonal movement in farm population.

[7] Bureau of Agricultural Economics, "Farm Population Estimates" (mimeographed).

[8] For a discussion of the 1932 situation see P. K. Whelpton, "The Extent, Character and Future of the New Landward Movement," *Journal of Farm Economics*, Vol. XV, No. 1 (January, 1933), pp. 57–66.

Changes in the rural-nonfarm population are not so easy to measure, except for the intercensal period as a whole. From 1910 to 1920 the entire rural population increased over 1,700,000,[9] the farm population decreased about 463,000, hence the rural-nonfarm group increased about 2,200,000.[10] From 1920 to 1930 the rural population increased nearly 2,300,000, the farm population lost over 1,400,000, hence the rural-nonfarm group gained about 3,700,000. The increase in this population group showed itself chiefly in two ways: the reoccupancy of abandoned farmhouses in parts of certain states, particularly in the Northeast, and the building of new homes on subdivided farm land along improved roads near cities. Occasionally the long-established rural village[11] showed some growth, but this was rather rare except in the vicinity of cities, and hence related to the farm subdivisions just mentioned.

Since the depression started, the rural-nonfarm population probably has continued to increase, though undoubtedly in a somewhat different manner than before. The reoccupancy of abandoned farms has proceeded apace in the Appalachian region and extended farther from cities on the cut-over land of the Great Lakes region and on marginal and submarginal farm land in general. On the other hand, the building of new homes on farm subdivisions near cities has stopped almost entirely. Even in good times many of these places were erected in considerable part by the owner himself, and the cash expense was kept low. But since 1930 the depression has prevented most of this type of construction as well as the more pretentious. Moreover, an increase in places for rent in these localities has lessened the need for new construction. Offsetting these developments has been the putting up of many log cabins and shacks of rough lumber from local sawmills, a movement that has taken place chiefly in marginal or submarginal farming areas where a family may be fairly self-sufficient by raising their own food and cutting their own wood for cooking and heating. Rural villages, like farms, have probably gained in population during the depression by a greater return move-

[9] The census figure of 1,599,000 adjusted for change in date of enumeration.

[10] The urban-farm population was less than 1 per cent of the total farm population in 1920 and 1930.

[11] A rural village is one of less than 2,500 population, larger villages being classed as urban by the Bureau of the Census.

ment and fewer departures. Although village people can hardly be as self-sufficing as farm people, it is possible for them to supplant the money system with the barter system and supply their own needs to a much greater extent than is possible for city-dwellers. Perhaps the slowing up of growth of rural-nonfarm population near cities has not been offset by more rapid growth elsewhere, and the average annual increase of 370,000 during the 1920 decade has not continued. But it seems probable that the group gained at least 200,000 persons during 1932 and possibly as many as 400,000.

As was pointed out early in this paper, the increase in the total population of the United States during 1932 was approximately 830,000. Adding the estimated increases of 700,000–900,000 for the farm population and 200,000–400,000 for the rural-nonfarm population gives a total rural increase of 900,000–1,300,000. On this basis the urban population lost between 70,000 and 470,000 persons during 1932, probably the first year with no urban increase in over a century.[12]

That the above estimate of a loss in the total urban population does not agree with recent figures released by the Bureau of the Census should be pointed out at once. In estimating the population of the 982 cities of 10,000 and over in the 1930 census, an increase is shown from July 1, 1931, to July 1, 1932, for 873 of the 891 cities which grew from 1920 to 1930.[13] In most cases the Bureau's assumption is that "the annual increase of population since the census of 1930 has been the same as the average annual increase between 1920 and 1930." Totaling the figures, 873 cities which had a population of 55,375,000 in the 1930 census are estimated to have gained 1,086,000 during the fiscal year 1932. No estimates are shown for 85 cities of over 10,000 which had a population of 2,300,000 in 1930 but which decreased 151,500 from 1920 to 1930, nor for 24 other cities with a population of 665,000 and 2,183 smaller urban places with a population of 10,615,000 in 1930. It is altogether probable that increases in

[12] See also P. K. Whelpton, "The Extent, Character and Future of the New Landward Movement," *Journal of Farm Economics*, Vol. XV, No. 1 (January, 1933), pp. 57–66.

[13] U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Estimated Population, July 1, 1930, 1931 and 1932, for Municipalities Having 10,000 or More Inhabitants on April 1, 1930" (mimeographed).

the last two groups were larger than decreases in cities which declined from 1920 to 1930, and hence that the total urban increase according to the census method of estimating exceeded 1,100,000 during 1932. This is considerably higher than the *decrease* of between 70,000 and 470,000 indicated above.

In accounting for these divergent views regarding urban growth, the use of different twelve-month periods is of little import because the assumption quoted above would give practically the same increase for the calendar year 1932 as for the fiscal year ending July 1, 1932. Much more important is the fact that while there is evidence of a decline in the total urban population during 1932 there is little basis for determining which particular cities lost and which gained during the year, and still less for estimating the amount of gain or loss in each individual case.

Continuing the past trend of growth of each city is, no doubt, more accurate than any method which disregards past trends, unless a vast organization with ample means could make adequate studies. But because the sum of the individual estimates obtained by the historical method appears too large, it might be desirable to lower each one proportionally so as to bring the sum in line, unless definite evidence pointed to the need of larger or smaller adjustments in particular cases.

GROWTH FROM 1930 TO 1980[14]

The rapidity with which births, immigration, and population growth have been declining in the United States during recent years has stimulated interest in the questions of how soon the population will cease to increase and how large it will be at that time. Neither of these can be answered with assurance, but it is possible to point out what will happen if the past trends in specific birth-rates and the expectation of life continue along certain lines, and if the excess of aliens and citizens arriving over those departing amounts to certain figures.

The expectation of life at birth of white persons in the original death registration states rose from 49.6 in 1900–1902 to 51.9 in 1909–

[14] For a detailed discussion see Warren S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton, *Population Trends in the United States* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1933 [in press]).

11, 55.2 in 1919–20, and 58.6 in 1929,[15] a gain of nine years. Most of this resulted from the cutting in half of infant mortality, for the expectation of life at age 20 only increased from 43.0 to 45.6, and at age 40 from 28.4 to 29.0. At older ages there was even a decrease, the expectation at age 60 declining from 14.8 to 14.5. In the future it is altogether probable that there will be still further reduction in infant and child mortality sufficient in itself to increase gradually the expectation of life at birth of the white population in the United States from 61.2 in 1930[16] to 62.3 years. This is the lowest assumption used by the writer. If mortality rates at these younger ages are reduced somewhat lower and progress is made at other ages up to middle life, it is possible that the expectation of life at birth will rise to 66 years within half a century (Table II). This may be called a "medium" assumption, appearing quite reasonable in view of the change from 1900 to 1929. A corresponding lengthening of life may be assumed for Negroes in both cases.

The birth-rate for native white women 15–44 years of age declined about one-third from 1900 to 1930 (Table II). From 1920 to 1930 it declined over one-fifth, compared with almost two-fifths for foreign-born white women and one-fifth for Negro women. Although specific birth-rates may continue to decline at this rapid pace, it seems more probable that future decreases will become smaller relatively as well as absolutely. "Low" and "medium" future trends for native white women are shown in Table II. Similar declines are assumed for Negro women and larger declines for foreign-born white women.

The past trend of immigration offers less guidance for estimating the future than those of birth-rates and the expectation of life. The excess of arrivals of citizens and aliens over departures amounted to about 6,000,000 from 1900 to 1910, to 2,600,000 from 1910 to 1920, and to 3,300,000 from 1920 to 1930. But, in 1931 and 1932 together, departures exceeded arrivals by about 300,000. Probably a "low" assumption for the future is that arrivals will equal departures,

[15] Values for 1929 are from Edgar Sydenstricker, "The Vitality of the American People," *Recent Social Trends* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1933), I, 610. They include the total population which in these states was 96.4 per cent white in 1930.

[16] L. I. Dublin and A. J. Lotka "from advance information, drawn from a book prepared in this Bureau [the Statistical Bureau of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company], the publication of which is planned for some time this year [1933]."

since it seems unlikely that the United States will send out for many years more people than it receives. A "medium" assumption may be the net arrival of 75,000 persons annually during 1935–39, and of 150,000 in 1940 and following years (Table II).

TABLE II

FUTURE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ACCORDING TO SPECIFIED TRENDS*

	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980
	Expectation of Life at Birth of White Persons†								
Low	51.0	53.3	56.6	61.2	62	62	62	62	62
Medium					63	65	66	66	66
High					63	66	69	71	72
	Births per 1,000 Native White Women 15–44								
Low	116	105	98	78	65	59	55	55	55
Medium					70	64	60	60	60
High					75	73	72	72	72
	Arrivals of Aliens and Citizens Less Departures (Thousands per Year)‡								
Low	375	450	144	60	none	none	none	none	none
Medium					120	150	150	150	150
High					260	300	300	300	300
	Population, April 1 (Millions)								
Low	75.8	91.9	106.3§	122.8	130.9	135.6	136.0	132.5	126.5
Medium					133.1	142.9	149.8	153.8	155.2
High					135.1	150.8	167.3	184.2	202.0

* For sources of data from 1900 to 1930 and discussion of these and other future trends see Warren S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton, *Population Trends in the United States* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1933 [in press]), chaps. vii–x.

† For 1900–1920, data for the Original Registration States increased by 1.4 years, based on data for individual states in *United States Abridged Life Tables, 1919–20*. For 1930, L. I. Dublin and A. J. Lotka (see n. 16).

‡ Five-year average centered on year indicated.

§ Includes 150,000 allowance for underenumeration of Negroes.

If birth-rates, immigration, and the expectation of life follow the "low" trends outlined, the population will increase to a maximum of about 136,500,000 between 1955 and 1960, and then decline (Table II). But if the "medium" trends are followed, there will be a gradual increase to 155,200,000 in 1980. Should net immigration amount to 100,000 a year more than the "medium" assumption, the 1950

population would be increased by about 2,000,000 and the 1980 population by about 7,000,000.

Events of recent years indicate to the writer that actual trends are likely to be between the "medium" and "low" assumptions rather than above the "medium"; nevertheless it is interesting to see what may happen if this opinion is incorrect. The "high" assumptions which have been used in this connection are that the expectation of life of whites will increase to 72 years by 1980, the birth-rate of native white women 15–44 will only decline to 72 per 1,000 in 1980, and net immigration will amount to about 200,000 annually during 1935–39 and 300,000 thereafter. On this basis the population will increase by about 10 or 11 per cent a decade, and pass the 200,000,000 mark before 1980 (Table II). Those who are firmly imbued with rapid growth of population as the ideal condition for the United States may have no difficulty in convincing themelves that these "high" assumptions are quite reasonable, or err on the low side if at all. But most of those who have watched recent trends in specific birth- and death-rates probably will wish to discount any estimates which show a population of much over 150,000,000 in the United States before 1980.

INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES

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ABSTRACT

While checked one-fifth by the depression, the flood of inventions continues, with several newly progressive fields showing an actual increase of American patents last year. Technocratic vagaries make appropriate a new examination of the effect of inventions on labor. Of those in the present year's list only 16 per cent are predominantly labor-saving, while 13 per cent rather save land and 27 per cent capital, and 44 per cent create new consumers' goods or are otherwise unclassifiable as to influence on labor; in sum three-tenths seem to lower the relative distributive share of labor, and seven-tenths to raise it, while all, according to the economists' analysis, raise the absolute share of labor. The inventions and discoveries of 1932 are listed under nine headings.

The stream of technic advances continues, although at a slackening rate during the depression, it appears, despite an increase during most past depressions. American patents applied for were down 12 per cent during the fiscal year ended in June, after an 8 per cent drop the previous year. Yet there were some especially progressive fields in which applications were more numerous than last year—air-conditioning, refrigeration, oil burners, alloys, electric clocks, devices improving railway travel, and the automobile industry, especially free-wheeling and dewaxed oils for lubrication (*A*, November).[1]

Whereas invention has almost always been considered as beneficent, and technologic progressiveness the one best virtue which the capitalist system could claim, we have recently seen the strange spectacle of invention being denounced as a menace, by a group of engineers turned economists, or rather imagining themselves economists. We need not be long detained by these technocrats, for their economics is only a revival of an old workmen's fallacy, long repressed by the voice of authority but never uprooted from its strong psychologic bed, that invention spells unemployment. That is a fallacy which dies hard. Even the most intelligent hesitate today and find (temporary) cases where such unemployment is a fact. W. I. King answers that in 1929 only from 2 to 3 per cent of the workers were unable to find jobs; yet it may be replied that boom times are not average times, that sales for instalment payment had been in-

[1] See n. 2 for explanation of symbols.

creasing, and that the power of our system to conquer technologic unemployment in such a year does not show us how, nor even prove it possible, to banish the demon in average and bad years.

Let us attack the problem from a new angle. It has been pointed out long since, but regularly forgotten, that not all inventions are labor-saving ones. There are also the land-saving inventions, like the skyscraper, or geophysical prospecting, and capital-saving inventions, like multiplex telegraphy, or a fire-protection system, as well as the many inventions which do not save anything, but proffer some new consumers' good, such as radiotelephony and television. All these three classes of invention tend to bid the price of labor up, not down, although the last class, while a new bid for labor and capital, for the most part only replaces old bids for the production of now outrivaled luxuries. The land- and capital-saving inventions, by lowering the distributive share of those factors of production, must inevitably raise the share of labor.

We should like, then, to know what proportion these labor-helping inventions are among all. For a rough calculation I took a list of 120 inventions made or rapidly crescent in the last generation, which I had prepared for *Recent Social Trends*, including military inventions and no discoveries, chosen as having the most important social effects. I summarily classified these inventions, and found that 33 per cent of them were predominantly labor-saving, 8 per cent land-saving, 14 per cent capital-saving, and 45 per cent creating new kinds of consumers' goods, or being otherwise qualitative rather than economic in significance, although causing shifts of industrial activity. Omitting this last class as not significant for present purposes, and adding the land- and capital-saving inventions, we conclude that around two-fifths of the significant inventions tend to raise the relative distributive share of labor, and three-fifths to lower it relatively while raising it absolutely. The net result is no large prejudice to labor relatively, possibly none, and at any rate this loss is counteracted by the tendency in all cases to raise wages absolutely, and by the fact which Professor Paul Douglas reports that capital in modern manufacturing increases three times as fast as the labor supply.

A similar repartition, practiced upon the inventions only of the present, 1932 list, gives 63 inventions, divided as: unclassifiable 44

per cent, labor-saving 16 per cent, capital-saving 27 per cent, and land-saving 13 per cent. Among these latest inventions, therefore, only three-tenths seem to lower the relative share of labor, and seven-tenths to raise it.

Whatever may be the effect of invention upon particular trades, it seems clear by this argument as well as others that the advance of invention benefits the working class. Least of all is it likely to hurt them in the present depression, when there is every tendency to employ labor where feasible, and to avoid investment in new and costly equipment, whether labor-saving or other.

There is one complex of inventions in particular that is likely to bring a vast saving of capital and city land, hence increasing the distributive share for labor by about the whole amount saved in interest and rents. This is the complex of *illumination* inventions, including ultra-violet and quartz and, as aids, the inventions cheapening electric power and improving ventilation. The lighting inventions have in the last century added *evenings* to the effective day for the masses, with great effect upon recreation and reading. They are presently likely to add the rest of the twenty-four hours, bringing continuous operation. This has long been usual in transportation and communication, where capital charges are great; and we have seen it lately extended in many other fields, even farming. The recent building of a hardware factory without a window was portentous. I predict that the city of the future will be a *monecopolis*, a single, vast, unburnable, high building, whose corridors are streets, and whose light, ultra-violet, and ventilation are entirely artificial, and whose every activity is incessant, employing three or four shifts, so that a unit of capital or city land will go from two to twenty times as far as today, with labor automatically reaping the benefit.

The following list of inventions and discoveries should be understood, as was explained in last year's article, not as a claim that these novelties have any sure future or effects, or are necessarily even new or true, but that they appear to indicate at least a way by which some important and specific social effect could, and probably will, be arrived at, unless some better route to the same end is discovered by inventors who are very likely to bring forth contemporaneous

equivalent solutions for the same need. The letters in parentheses indicate the source.[2]

PHYSICS

The yellow, sodium vapor lamp of D. M. Pirani of Germany, demonstrated by Westinghouse and already put to use, is 70 per cent efficient, which is from three to four times the score of neon, and six times that of the 40-watt tungsten filament lamp. The solvent trick was a new glass which is not darkened by the vapor (*A*, *P*, April). A filament light has been made with rhenium, first isolated in 1927, and now first used. A red light is obtained from zinc vapor (*P*, August).

Light from a momentary flash may be stored in a safe, phosphorescent globe, which will glow for two hours, according to the latest of the 2,000-odd patents of Ethan I. Dodds.

Night golf is initiated (*P*, October).

The photo-electric cell has been set to opening kitchen doors as the waiter approaches, turning on a drinking fountain, detecting smoke, counting, and has now been reduced to a convenient portable package size (*A*, February). It has previously been adapted to read books to the blind by transliterating them into musical sounds, and now a Frenchman blinded in the war has brought it to transliterate into Braille print for the fingers of many (*G.*) And R. E. Naumburg makes it transform maps, diagrams, and any line prints into raised form (*P*, June).

Ten million volts, making a lightning bolt sixty feet long, has been produced by General Electric (*G*).

The great progress being made in subatomic and radiological physics is not suitable for treatment here, but doubtless portends large effects of some kind or other, for example, cheaper power, or transmutation of elements.

Dr. F. F. Lucas of the Bell Telephone Laboratories has perfected an ultra-violet microscope of such delicacy that crisp, brilliant photographs can be made under a magnification of 6,000 diameters (*G*).

[2] *A* signifies *Scientific American* for the month stated, in 1932 unless otherwise given; *G*, the compilation of "Scientific Progress in 1932" by the National Geographic Society, published in the *World Almanac for 1933*, pp. 137–46; *P*, *Popular Science Monthly*; *S*, "Achievements in 1932," compiled in *Science News Letter*, December 24, 1932.

Often invention proceeds by reversal. So Oscar Fischinger reversed the familiar sound-film practice, by marking arbitrary repeated shapes on a strip of film, running it through and hearing how they would sound. Finding some that would imitate various instruments and the human voice, he opened up a new field of invention, predicted by the writer in 1912 on the totally different basis of the telharmonium. This is the synthesizing of vocal and other music starting from the sound wave, instead of from the notes of such instruments as nature and art happen to have provided—the voice, violin, and a few more. A synthetic singer would have a vocal range of ten octaves, be flawless in each, and every last overtone from an "orchestra" would be determined at leisure by the composer (*P*, March, 1933).

COMMUNICATION

Television, one of the greatest inventions in the making, achieved the crude reproduction of an outdoor scene, the Derby, and transmission by the Marconi company on a band hardly wider than the ordinary. Dr. Alexanderson, of Bell, suggests using light instead of radio waves for broadcasting television, from a lighthouse tower visible from all parts of a city. A method has been devised for hiding television in cipher (*P*, March).

A choice of six programs, from radio, hotel staff, and records, is offered to guests at the new Waldorf-Astoria Hotel.

Portability is commonly an important achievement. A movie projector is produced, no bigger than a box camera, a hand camera for color photography, with reproduction from negatives (*P*, March), a phonograph about 10 by 4 by 2 inches, and movies for educational or advertising use put on an 18-inch film disk, one of which will replace a 1,000-foot reel, and play ten thousand times without damage (*P*, November).

The telegraphone, recording sound on a magnetized tape, was used to record proceedings at an English trial (*P*, April).

Dr. Herbert E. Ives, the illustrious photographic inventor of the Bell Laboratories, demonstrated experimentally a new method for stereoscopic movies, using a special screen for projection, but no special viewing apparatus.

Eleven hundred teletype users may now type letters to one another through the telephone network (*P*, March).

AERONAUTICS

While plans are making for commercial flying of the North Atlantic, the Deutsche Lufthansa is about to open a route from Africa to Pernambuco, providing three-day service between Berlin and Rio de Janeiro. A liner will be stationed in mid-Atlantic, steaming to windward and dragging over the stern a great canvas sheet. Seaplanes will land in the quiet wake, and be drawn up the sheet, refitted and catapulted into the air again (*A*, December; *P*, February, 1933).

The French stratosphere plane, with pressure cabin for two men flying "blind," is intended to attempt an eight-hour flight from Paris to New York (*P*, December).

Defense against air raiders is said to be aided by a new British flashing light which confuses the pilot (*P*, March, 1933).

The world's land-plane speed record of eight years' standing has been broken by Doolittle, with 474 kilometers per hour, and the height record set at 13,404 kilometers by Uwins, while the speed of large commercial transports was increased by one- to two-fifths (*S*).

Progress has been made in blind flying, including a method for flying, without following a guiding radio beam, on a straight-line course from any direction toward a transmitter, while correcting continuously for wind drift (*S*). The Sperry automatic pilot will fly the plane alone (*A*, April).

Helium in quantity has been discovered in Trinidad (*G*).

OTHER TRANSPORTATION

A floating hydroplane, which comes to ride on a cushion of air between boat and water, while making seventy-mile speed, is invented by V. W. Strode (*P*, March, 1933).

A war tank that takes a 35-foot leap over a trench, at 60 miles an hour, and then, with endless treads removed, makes 110-mile speed, was tested by J. W. Christie for the American army. He is also building a flying tank, to land beyond the enemy's lines and attack on the ground, disrupting trench warfare (*P*, October).

Italy produces a three-story bus of duralumin, carrying eighty-eight passengers.

An auto-parking machine, a sort of bucket-chain that parks twenty-four cars on ground space for two, has been successfully tried in Chicago (*P*, September).

Ninety-mile-an-hour, light-weight electric cars, and flange-wheeled, rubber-tired rail-buses have been put into operation (*S*).

Speed of escalators has been doubled in London (*A*, May).

A large liner, the "Conte di Savoia," has been gyro-stabilized (*A*, October).

The novel "Seatrain" type of vessel was put to ferrying freight cars between Havana and New Orleans and New York. The cars are hoisted on board and yarded on three decks. Such ferriage might be economical up to two thousand miles, in place of breaking bulk.

Drivers in the Hudson tunnel are urged to a definite speed by traveling lights. A floating tunnel is proposed for the channel span of a great harbor bridge (*P*, March, August).

A remarkable example of public enterprise in business is presented by the Union Inland Terminal, covering a block at Fifteenth Street and Eighth Avenue, New York. Less-than-carload freight is handled to and from all railroads, freight cars and trucks are sent through the building by elevators, and business space is rented (*A*, October).

POWER

Two sizable power plants using mercury like steam, at Schenectady, New York and Kearny, New Jersey, neared completion. The latter's requirement of mercury, though but a few barrelfuls, would be most of this country's normal consumption in a year. The former is unique in being the first outdoor heat-electric plant, and both will have an unparalleled economy (*S*).

The first fully mechanized coal mine, the Wildwood of Pennsylvania, brings out the coal on a rubber belt 900 feet between centers.

A compound gasoline auto-engine, which burns up and uses its own carbon monoxide in the low-pressure cylinders, through additional admitted air, has been invented by G. A. Bartholomew (*P*, October).

A heat engine of unheard-of efficiency is being developed by the Brown-Boveri firm in Switzerland. Powdered coal or other fuel is exploded inside a large water-jacket, making steam as in a boiler,

and the exhaust running another turbine. The diesel engine has been adapted to burn powdered coal, by R. Pawlikowski (*P*, October, August).

The hydrogenation of petroleum, whereby it may all be made into gasoline, has advanced so that there are two plants in this country in operation, and fifteen refiners licensed (*S*).

CHEMISTRY

Cellulose, one of the most important yet least understood substances, has been found to have the enormous molecular weight of 30,000; and lignin, another important stuff of wood, has been learned about (*S*).

Beryllium, with its price reduced to eighty dollars a pound, becomes a commercial metal, used not for its lightness, which passes aluminum, but for greatly improving copper in alloys (*A*, May).

Progress in various synthetic rubbers, and one natural kind, is reported (*G*).

Plating stainless steel upon the garden variety is announced by the Allegheny Steel Company (*G*).

MEDICINE AND PUBLIC HEALTH

A six-day cure for morphine addiction has been worked out at Cornell (*G.*)

A new anesthetic, non-habit-forming, less toxic, and of greater lasting quality than cocaine, is announced by T. H. Rider and E. W. Scott (*G*).

A successful treatment for poisoning from carbon monoxide and from potassium cyanide has been suggested by Mrs. Matilda M. Brooks, Ph.D. (*S*).

A serum giving immunity to yellow fever has been produced by the Rockefeller Foundation (*S*, *G*).

One-tenth of institutionalized cases of mental deficiency have their origin in birth injuries, Dr. E. A. Doll has stated (*S*). Mongolism has been proved by Dr. R. L. Jenkins to be very highly correlated with the mother's age.

A test for pregnancy within a few days of conception has been provided by Aschenheim and Zondek (*A*, January).

Especially promising advances have been made in the knowledge of pernicious anemia, auto-intoxication, cancer, coeliac disease, epilepsy, hemophilia, Hodgkin's disease, lead poisoning, liver and spleen diseases, poliomyelitis (with the visibility of the germ), chronic rheumatism, rickets, scarlet fever, stomach ulcers, tooth decay, tularemia, endemic typhus fever, deep infected wounds, anesthetics, radium, and the after-effects of antitoxic serums (*G*, *S*).

VITAMINS AND BIOLOGY

Vitamin C has been isolated by Dr. C. C. King of the University of Pittsburgh (*G*), found to be identical with hexuronic acid of adrenal-gland origin (*S*), synthesized, and a good source found in halibut-liver oil (*A*, May, June). Vitamin A has been made artificially, B-1 produced too (*A*, April), and D isolated and synthesized (*A*, May).

Milk has been sterilized by sound waves, without destroying any vitamins (*G*, *S*).

Dr. J. P. Collip of McGill has announced the isolation of a sex hormone in pure form (*G*). A hormone revealing the sex of an unborn child was discovered in the urine of the mother by Dorn and Sugarman (*S*).

Prolactin has been identified, an anterior pituitary gland principle controlling milk secretion (*S*).

The brain of a scholar has a better blood supply and composition than that of ordinary men, Dr. H. H. Donaldson of Wistar Institute reported (*S*).

Bacteria were made to change to invisible form and back, through regulation of the acidity of their food, Agnes Quirk in the Department of Agriculture reported (*S*).

By X-ray new varieties of cotton plants have been produced, and the evolution of the fruit-fly reversed. Also new plant varieties can be grown from sprouts off tumors (*S*).

Production through selective breeding of a race of superintelligent rats and another of stupid animals, an original demonstration of the hereditary nature of intelligence, was reported by Dr. R. C. Tryon of the University of California (*S*).

MISCELLANEOUS

An invention notorious with the technocrats is an automatic bulb-blowing machine of the Corning Glass Works, which makes light bulbs at seventy per second (*G*). It remains to be seen whether the price of bulbs, which approximately reflects the total social costs of producing and marketing them, will be sensibly reduced in consequence.

Much progress is made in designing factory-made houses; their building will come after the depression (*A*, October).

Prime numbers are found ten thousand times as fast as the most adept mathematician could find them, by a new calculating machine perfected through grants of the Carnegie Institution of Washington (*G*).

Eight cycles in the climate of Washington were discovered through the periodometer, by Dr. C. G. Abbot of the Smithsonian (*G*).

A self-supporting roof consists of one vast sheet of welded steel, stretched like an awning (*S*, December).

A noiseless fan has been produced by shaping the blades peculiarly (*P*, April).

A paradoxical pump, which draws water from any depth by means of a single pipe (and compression waves), has been patented by Bellocq of Argentina (*P*, July).

An ancient device for collecting water from the air without rain has been improved by Knapen in France, and may be valuable in desert regions (*P*, 1933).

A magnetic device will detect a pistol or any other bulky iron object carried through a door (*P*, May).

Glass which can be seen through only in one direction has been used by police and business offices (*P*, November).

AMERICAN FOREIGN POLICY

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ABSTRACT

American foreign policy during 1932 was determined by: (*a*) attachment as a nation to certain traditional dogmas; (*b*) national self-interest; (*c*) interplay of these forces with the forces and conditions of our domestic politics. The adoption of a consistent policy was made more difficult by the presidential election. Relations with the League of Nations were marked by considerations of national interest and domestic politics. Inconsistency of policy and varying degrees of co-operation with the League were manifest with respect to the Manchurian crisis, disarmament, and the war-debts problem. A general economic conference was called by the Council of the League of Nations upon consultation with the American government. Secretary Stimson's interpretation of the Kellogg Pact and declaration of the principles of consultation and conference served to clarify and to define American foreign policy. Invitation of League participation in the Chaco and Leticia disputes, withdrawal of American assistance from Nicaragua, a new attitude toward Russia, and ratification of several new arbitration and conciliation treaties indicate significant development of policy during the year.

American foreign policy in 1932 was determined, as in other years, by a variety of considerations: (1) our attachment as a nation to certain traditions or dogmas developed throughout our history; (2) the factor of national self-interest; and (3) the interplay of these forces with the forces and conditions of our domestic politics. The unusual number of highly important problems, their dramatic character, their complexity, their gravity, and their serious possibilities for the peace and prosperity of the United States would have made their solution difficult at the best and a very cautious policy with respect to them probably inevitable. The fact that 1932 was also an election year obviously made still more difficult the adoption of a consistent and energetic foreign policy. Although discussion of the most delicate of these problems was kept pretty well out of the political campaign, the announced position of both major parties tended, in the main, toward adherence to traditional dogmas and made more difficult any effective international co-operation on new lines during the period of the campaign. The defeat of President Hoover could hardly be considered a repudiation of his foreign policy, but it did introduce the *interregnum* of four months following the election, during which initiative and responsibility for foreign policy were generally avoided. Laudable efforts were made to overcome these

defects in our constitutional machinery through a system of voluntary co-operation between the outgoing and incoming presidents. Two important conferences were held, the results of which were, first, substantial agreement as to the procedure for handling the war-debts problem, and, second, assurance of the continuity of policy, at least with respect to the very important questions of Manchuria and disarmament.

During the past year the policy with respect to the League of Nations continued as before to be based largely on the considerations of national interest and domestic politics. A significant restatement of that policy was made at the beginning of the year by the undersecretary of state, Mr. Castle, as follows:

> The administration is not in favor of joining the League. I do not for a moment believe that the people of the United States are in favor of joining the League. On the other hand, I see no reason for being afraid of the League, no valid reason against co-operating with the League, wherever it seems to our benefit to do so, or when it seems that, by so doing, we shall, without weakening our own independent position, be of larger use to the world. This limited co-operation has been our custom for some years. It has worked well. It has in no way involved the United States with the League, and it will be continued.

In accordance with that doctrine of independent and limited co-operation, the United States was represented during the year, either by observers from the American Consulate in Geneva or by special representatives sent directly from Washington, at virtually all the regular and routine activities of the League. In respect to Liberia, the co-operation of the United States with the League of Nations, begun in 1929, continued to be particularly close during the past year. Mr. Samuel Reber, Jr., sat for the United States, on a completely equal status with members of the Council, on a Council Committee (camouflaged by the State Department under the name of the International Committee on Liberia), at three extended sessions. In that capacity he joined in formulating a plan for joint League and American assistance to and virtual control of Liberia, a plan to which the American government first attached certain reservations on the ground that the control envisaged was not sufficiently drastic but which it later approved and transmitted with its indorsement to the American financial interests concerned. On the other hand, the official aloofness toward the International Labor Organi-

zation continued, and the American government declined to participate in the conference sponsored by that Organization for the consideration of the forty-hour week as a curb to unemployment. The State Department carefully explained that the United States could not, in view of its non-membership in the International Labor Organization attend any of its conferences, but in this case it went farther than before by instructing Mr. Prentiss Gilbert to follow the meetings as an observer.

The co-operation with the League in its handling of the Manchurian crisis continued throughout the year, but with numerous inconsistencies and with varying degrees of enthusiasm and completeness. After having sought and obtained a seat on the Council in October, 1931, for Mr. Prentiss Gilbert, the Hoover-Stimson administration abandoned that, first for the method of formal "independent co-operation" with the Council in December, 1931, through General Dawes, and, finally, for the earlier method of informal liaison. This liaison was carried on during the last year chiefly by Minister Hugh R. Wilson and Mr. Norman H. Davis, and was fairly effective with respect to the Council, because of the small size of that body and the tact, skill, and good sense of these American representatives. Liaison was also maintained with the Assembly and the Assembly's Committee of Nineteen, although in an even less direct and official manner.

The policy with respect to the procedure of settlement was similarly uncertain. After having opposed and prevented the establishment of a neutral commission of inquiry at the very beginning of the dispute (in September, 1931), the administration not only informally sponsored and formally approved the creation of such a commission in the following December, but also formally approved of the appointment of an American member in the person of General McCoy.[1] Although the United States thus joined members of the League in the creation and work of the Lytton commission established under Article 11 of the Covenant, it declined, less than two months later, to participate similarly in the Commission of Inquiry set up under

[1] "This Government consented to the appointment by the League of an American [Major General Frank R. McCoy] as one of the commissioners" (official announcement by State Department in *Press Releases*, February 13, 1932, pp. 135–36).

Article 15 to report on the Shanghai incidents, Secretary Stimson explaining to the secretary-general of the League that the United States "is unable to appoint an American official on a committee of the League which will be acting under the provisions of one of the articles of the League Covenant." Mr. Stimson indicated, however, that he was prepared to "co-operate" with the Shanghai commission, and accordingly such co-operation was arranged and carried on.[2] The policy thus seemed to hinge upon a fine distinction between "participation" and "co-operation," between different articles of the Covenant, and between the areas of conflict.[3] It may be noted further, with respect to the Shanghai phase of the Sino-Japanese dispute, that the Hoover-Stimson administration seemed generally to prefer to act in conjunction with the Great Powers, and particularly with Great Britain, rather than with the League. Nevertheless, it did announce its Shanghai policy to the Council through Sir John Simon (on February 29, 1932); it joined with other Powers in sending information about the military developments in the Shanghai area to the League Assembly; and it formally approved of the Assembly resolutions of March 4 and March 11.

After having assumed joint responsibility with League members for the creation, personnel, and work of the Lytton commission, as noted above, the Hoover-Stimson administration took the position, when the commission's report was made, that General McCoy had been "appointed in a private capacity" (which was equally true of all the commissioners), and that the report was strictly "a League affair." The American government declined, therefore, to participate officially or directly in the consideration of the Lytton report by the Council and Assembly. At the same time the administration indicated in a vague way that it would support the League in an attempt to carry out the conclusions of the report provided only the action did not involve the application of sanctions.

The one significant contribution of the United States in the Manchurian affair was the so-called Stimson doctrine of non-recognition.

[2] State Department statement, February 1, 1932, in *ibid.*, February 6, 1932, p. 109.

[3] The writer has discussed these matters more fully in an article, "Relations of the United States with the Council of the League of Nations," *Amer. Polit. Sci. Rev.*, XXVI (June, 1932), 503–26.

This policy, that there would be no recognition of any situation, treaty, or agreement brought about in violation of existing treaties, was first stated in notes to Japan and China on January 7, 1932, was repeated in Secretary Stimson's letter to Senator Borah on February 23, and was formally reasserted by Secretary Stimson in communications to the Powers and the League, announced on January 16 last, this time apparently with the complete approval of President-elect Roosevelt. This particular American policy, firmly adhered to throughout, was approved by the Council of the League in February, 1932, and was incorporated into the resolution unanimously adopted by the Assembly on March 11. It may thus be said to have become already a part of the public law of the world, but with results yet uncertain.

In respect to disarmament, the American policy was one of somewhat more cordial co-operation with the League, although again not consistently maintained. The Hoover-Stimson administration frankly recognized the Disarmament Conference opening in February, 1932, as a League Conference, and participated in it as such. At Geneva, Mr. Gibson, as chairman of the American delegation, even vigorously supported the resolution, adopted on April 19, that any disarmament effected must be in accordance with the Covenant of the League. This was particularly notable progress, in view of the fact that at several previous League conferences the United States had insisted upon deletion of virtually all references to the League before it would enter into any agreement, and had usually required that any machinery established by such conferences be made over into non-League machinery or be supplemented by non-League machinery with which the Americans could work.

In other respects also there was considerable progress in co-operation beyond previous policy. Mr. Gibson supported the creation of a political commission as a feature of the Conference organization, and had no hesitation in accepting American membership on that commission as a matter of course. This was in refreshing contrast to the previous policy of insisting that the problem of disarmament, at least as far as the United States was concerned, was largely a technical problem, and that the United States would stay out of any discussion of the "purely European" political problems. The action

was all the more refreshing, since it was well understood at the time that the principal political problems to be considered by that political commission were those relating to the organization of peace, or, in other words, the problems of European security and an effective League of Nations. Although the United States was at no time prepared to accept for itself anything so drastic as the French security thesis and the corresponding French proposal for an international force at the command of the League of Nations, yet its representatives were now at least prepared to discuss those very proposals with some sympathy, quite in contrast to the previous refusal of the United States in the Preparatory Commission to have anything at all to do with the Committee on Arbitration and Security.

It was also indicated in Mr. Gibson's opening address to the Conference on February 9, 1932, that the United States was now prepared to accept budgetary limitation, which it had previously vehemently opposed, with the result that the principle of budgetary limitation was easily agreed upon and incorporated into the resolution of July 23 which ended the first phase of the Conference. Similarly, the American government now accepted and indorsed the principle of international supervision of armaments through a permanent disarmament commission, although it had previously opposed and prevented such a system of supervision. That principle was also, therefore, incorporated into the July resolution, but without details as to the composition of the commission, the United States still insisting, apparently, that it should be so constituted as to be at least nominally not an organ of the League of Nations.

The problem of German equality, one of the most pressing before the Disarmament Conference, raised the question of the relations of the United States to the Treaty of Versailles. It should be recalled, in this connection, that the United States, in the Treaty of Berlin concluded with Germany in 1921, expressly accepted the military and naval clauses contained in Article V of the Treaty of Versailles. Both Secretary Stimson and Assistant Secretary Rogers, in statements to the House Committee on Foreign Affairs in January, 1932, frankly acknowledged at least a moral, if not a legal, responsibility upon the United States with the other Allied Powers, for the disarmament conditions imposed upon Germany by that Versailles

Treaty.[4] Accordingly the American delegation argued at the Conference for a distinction between weapons of attack and of defense and special restrictions upon those used for aggression, proposed the reduction of armed forces to what may be called the "defense level" —that is, to such number as is necessary to maintain internal order and to defend against aggression and invasion—and formally suggested that "the only criterion for such a computation at present existing is to be found in the military forces maintained by the Central Powers in accordance with the treaties of peace, which specify that they were to be exclusively employed in the maintenance of order and policing of frontiers."[5] In Mr. Hoover's own plan for a one-third reduction in both land and naval forces, presented to the Conference on June 22, 1932, there was express reference to the Treaty of Versailles and the other peace treaties, under which the armies of the various Central Powers "were reduced to a size deemed appropriate for the maintenance of internal order." "I propose," said Mr. Hoover, "that we should accept for all nations a basic police component of soldiers proportionate to the average which was thus allowed Germany and these other states. This formula, with necessary corrections for Powers having colonial possessions, should be sufficient to provide for the maintenance of internal order by the nations of the world."[6]

The clear implication in all this that the United States would assume its due share of responsibility for settling the problem of German equality under this "Versailles yardstick" was, however, repudiated when the Germans withdrew from the Conference and the issue was thus squarely raised. In the negotiations to bring Germany back into the Conference, the United States at first took no official part, and President Hoover personally explained that aloofness by saying: "We are not a party to the Versailles Treaty and its limita-

[4] *Hearings before the House Committee on Foreign Affairs with Respect to a Disarmament Conference, January 5 and 6, 1932* (72d Cong., 1st sess.), pp. 16, 23–24. Cf. the writer's article, "Disarmament and Equality," *Geneva Special Studies*, III, No. 4 (April, 1932).

[5] Memorandum submitted to the Bureau of the Conference, February 19, 1932 (*League of Nations Doc. Conf. D. 85*). Cf. explanation of this memorandum by State Department, *Press Releases*, February 24, 1932, p. 221.

[6] *League of Nations Doc. Conf. D. 126.*

tion on German arms. That is solely a European question. The United States has already declared that it takes no part in that discussion."[7] Later, as the continued non-participation of Germany threatened the very life of the Conference, the American representative, Mr. Norman H. Davis, took a more active part in the conversations between the Powers on this point, and on December 11, 1932, joined in a five-power declaration as to the future of the Conference which was based essentially upon the principle of German equality, but without joining in that part of the declaration referring expressly to German equality.[8] There was also some inconsistency by the United States in its refusal to apply to its own navy the "Versailles yardstick" thus suggested by its own delegation and its own President. On the other hand, there was, after the submission of the Hoover plan on June 22, considerably more disposition on the part of the American government toward a policy of genuine disarmament, the sincerity and effectiveness of which remain to be tested in the later stages of the Conference.

The problem of the war debts continued to be one of the most pressing as well as one of the most difficult problems of the year. With the expiration of the Hoover moratorium came requests from most of the debtor governments for further postponement of their obligations and further discussion of the whole problem, with the implications of substantial reduction or complete cancellation as the eventual solution. The Lausanne Conference, which in effect wiped out reparations, had been convened, at least in part, as the result of intimations from the American government through the Hoover-Laval memorandum and otherwise that lifting of the reparations burden would result in reduction of the debt burden. The storm of congressional and public disapproval that broke with the revelation of the "gentlemen's agreement" at Lausanne definitely linking reparations and war debts forced the Hoover administration to deny any responsibility for these intimations and to reassert the political dogmas that the two items were completely unrelated and that there could be no cancellation or reduction. The administration therefore insisted on payment of the amounts due in December, but indicated

[7] Statement issued September 20, 1932, in *Press Releases*, September 24, 1932, p. 183.

[8] Text of five-power declaration, in *ibid.*, December 17, 1932, pp. 429–30.

ıat it was prepared to negotiate the question of future payments, ıd for that purpose proposed to Congress the recreation of the 'orld War Foreign Debt Commission. At the same time President oover sought the co-operation of President-Elect Roosevelt, a ove which at first was unsuccessful in view of their differences as to ·ocedure, Mr. Roosevelt preferring the ordinary diplomatic chan-ːls of approach and refusing to assume any initiative or responsibil-y until formally in office. Later, it proved possible to work out a ·ogram of substantial co-operation between the outgoing and in-ıming administrations, such that, so far as the British debt was ıncerned, arrangements were made to begin negotiation promptly ter March 4. There was, therefore, to be presumably a new ap-·oach to the whole matter, the outcome of which was uncertain at .e time of this writing.

In close connection with the problem of the war debts were the her economic problems of prices, currency and credit, general ade conditions, and the like. Intimations had been given out in the rly summer of 1932 that the United States would be glad to par-ːipate in a general economic conference provided only there were ı discussion of war debts, reparations, or the tariff; conversations ːre held on the matter particularly with the British, and the Lau-nne Conference included in its final resolutions one formally pro-ısing such a conference under the auspices of the League of Na-ɔns. The Council of the League accordingly called the conference, ovided for a preparatory committee, and invited the United States participate. This invitation, transmitted by the British govern-ent with assurances that the three questions of debts, reparations, ıd tariffs would be excluded, was promptly accepted by the Ameri-n government; experts were sent to participate at Geneva in the ɔrk of the preparatory committee, and arrangements were made to tend the final conference.[9] Later it was intimated by high officials the Hoover administration that both debts and tariffs probably ɔuld be discussed after all, since they could be separated from other

[9] Text of Lausanne resolution and invitations to U.S. in *ibid.*, July 30, 1932, pp. 81–Text of acceptance in *ibid.*, August 6, 1932, p. 96.

economic problems only with great difficulty,[10] and President-Elect Roosevelt quite openly seemed to favor their inclusion.

In connection with the Manchurian, disarmament, and other problems arose the question of the exact character of our obligations under the Kellogg Pact. Mr. Frank H. Simonds has rather aptly described that Pact as follows:

> In its essence, it amounts to precisely the same formal pledge signed by Nations, that in ancient days advocates of Temperance, as it was then called, invited drunkards to take, in renunciation of the use of alcohol. At the basis of this contrast, too, is the ineradicable American conviction that European peoples are addicted to war, as individuals to the excessive use of liquor. Thus, in spirit and in text, the Kellogg Pact is the Eighteenth Amendment of international law.

The lack of any kind of machinery for the enforcement of its obligations became so marked a weakness during the course of recent events that even high officials of the State Department called public attention, on several occasions, to the superiority of the Covenant of the League, in that respect. Whether the Pact would even secure common protest against flagrant violation of its own terms was uncertain before 1931.

To some extent that defect was remedied by Secretary Stimson's action, with respect to the Manchurian situation, in actually consulting with other Powers through the machinery of the League, in the manner already noted and with the Pact as a basis. For the other Powers the particular difficulty lay in the uncertainty whether the United States could be counted on for future and continued consultation in case of other similar situations in which its co-operation was essential. Heretofore, all efforts to get the United States to agree beforehand even to consult with other Powers in such matters had failed. It was, therefore, a most significant statement of American policy when Secretary Stimson, speaking before the Council on Foreign Relations on August 8, 1932, expounded at length the American government's conception of the Kellogg Pact and its relationship to the Covenant of the League, and declared that "the Pact thus necessarily carries with it the implication of consultation," although without any formal provision to that effect. In a later address at

[10] This was frankly stated by Dr. Julius Klein, assistant secretary of Commerce, in a radio address on December 18, 1932 (*New York Times*, December 19, 1932). Intimations to the same effect had come from even higher sources following the election.

Pittsburgh on October 27, Secretary Stimson repeated this interpretation and summed up the matter by saying: "In the new international world created by these treaties [the Covenant and the Pact], the basic idea is that war anywhere is of concern everywhere. The necessary resulting process of this has been shown by the events of the past year to be a consultation between the nations of the world and a call to public opinion to exert itself." It is of particular importance to note that before these significant statements of policy were made by the secretary of state, both political parties had, in their platforms, indorsed these principles of consultation and conference. There can therefore be little doubt that this now represents established American policy. Secretary Stimson showed his sincerity with respect to this principle of consultation by inviting the representatives in Washington of various European Powers signatory of the Kellogg Pact to confer with him on the Chaco and Leticia controversies in Latin America. In so doing he seemed to some critics to have set aside even the Monroe Doctrine in favor of this new principle of consultation, since these disputes were both between American states; but the results of such conferences were immediately evident in a more united pressure upon the contending countries from all these Powers, and in a better prospect for early peace.

A few matters should be noted briefly as significant developments of policy during the year. The Chaco dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay and the Leticia dispute between Colombia and Peru were severe tests of the peculiarly American machinery that had been set up to settle such cases. After some months of unsuccessful negotiation and pressure by the so-called Commission of Neutrals under the chairmanship of the assistant secretary of state of the United States, the intervention of the League of Nations was invited, or at least welcomed. This was a considerable departure from previous American policy with respect to Latin-American disputes and, taken together with the consultation already noted with respect to these disputes, was a most significant development in international co-operation.

American marines were finally withdrawn from Nicaragua on January 2, 1933, and the government of that country turned over after nineteen years of American "assistance," to the complete control of its own citizens. That withdrawal was quite promptly fol-

lowed by the cessation of his "bandit" activities by General Sandino, and instead his cordial participation in Nicaraguan affairs.

A new attitude toward Russia became discernible during the year. This came about through developments in connection with the Manchurian affair in particular. In view of the obvious Russian concern in that situation and the Russian desire to come to an understanding with the United States, approaches were made to Secretary Stimson during his visit to Geneva. Mr. Stimson declined personally to meet the Russian representatives but did permit other American representatives to confer informally on his behalf. With that beginning a closer understanding of the point of view of each country was reached, and toward the end of the year there were increasing indications that the Roosevelt administration would very probably recognize Russia. All of this development in cordiality had its prompt repercussions in Geneva, in that it apparently brought the power of Russia on the side of the League and the United States as against Japan, served to stiffen the League members in their consideration of the Lytton report, and made it probable, at the time of this writing, that both Russia and the United States might be brought into more active collaboration with the League through the creation of a special commission of conciliation or negotiation, virtually the Assembly Committee of Nineteen made over to include these two countries.

Several new arbitration and conciliation treaties were signed and ratified during the year, bringing the total of new general arbitration treaties in force to twenty-seven, and of new conciliation treaties to nineteen. In addition, six of the Root arbitration treaties of 1908–9 were still in force, and nineteen of the Bryan treaties. On the other hand, the protocols for the adhesion of the United States to the World Court remained unratified, although with every prospect of early ratification during the new administration.

On the whole, American foreign policy during the past year may be said to have approached considerably closer than in the previous post-war years to the maxim of Jefferson: "I think with others that nations are to be governed with regard to their own interests, but I am convinced that it is their interests in the long run to be grateful, faithful to their engagements even in the worst of circumstances, and honorable and generous always."

LABOR

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ABSTRACT

The continued depression is responsible for reduced labor banks, union membership, and strikes. Labor leaders are more belligerent in their expressions and are turning toward legislation and government aid. The radicals are continuing their activities on behalf of the unemployed and underpaid. A new type of labor organization has come into existence in the form of unemployed councils and leagues. The conservative unions because of their alliance with the Democrats and Progressive Republicans claim a great victory for their nonpartisan political policy. The minor parties catering to labor have made fair gains and are planning a united front for launching a "new party."

LABOR BANKS, STRIKES, AND UNION MEMBERSHIP

As the depression continues it is vitally affecting the economic fortunes of labor organizations. Labor banks, which were looked upon as a significant index to the power and influence of organized labor, have receded to a new low. Since 1928 the labor bank movement has been rapidly declining. While in that year twenty-seven banks were functioning, now only seven are still in existence. Similarly, capital has dwindled from $7,437,500 to $2,537,500; deposits have fallen from $98,183,830 to $22,662,514; and resources have decreased from $114,748,059 to $28,564,797. Since these figures were published another bank has closed its doors. However, the Federation Bank of New York has resumed operations, but only after prominent business men came to its aid.

There has also been a let-up in strike activity as compared with 1931. In the latter year there occurred 894 strikes in which 279,299 workers participated. For eleven months of 1932, the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics reports 660 strikes involving 248,294 strikers. It would seem that the total corrected figures for 1932 will register a slight decline in the number of workers affected by strikes. On the other hand, each individual strike will have covered a larger number of workers. This is explained by strikes in such important industries as coal mining, textile, and garment. With the continued reduction in wages more and larger strikes may be expected from now on.

Even according to official figures, union membership has declined

considerably. While it was common knowledge that unions were losing in membership even during the last period of prosperity, the official union figures did not confirm this fact. Now, at its convention in November, the American Federation of Labor reported a membership of 2,532,261, or a decrease since its previous annual report of 357,289. The unions outside of the Federation have suffered similar losses. This decline in membership reduces it to its lowest point since the war, when, in 1917, it stood at 3,451,000.

BELLIGERENCY AND LEGISLATION

The chaotic situation, with its labor reverses, has revived a belligerent attitude, which was lacking in the trade-union movement since 1925. During the last period of prosperity, the unions, particularly those affiliated with the Federation, worked upon the theory that they could accomplish more by catering to the employers. This idea was the central thought underlying the union-management co-operation plan, which offered to put the power and influence of the unions at furthering the business fortunes of those employers that recognized them. As a corollary to co-operating with the employers in making their business successful, the union movement also announced that it would act as a buffer between capitalism and radicalism. These policies were designed in order to induce the powerful employers to permit the unions to organize their workers. However, few tangible results were secured. Hence, when the depression set in with its unemployment, wage reductions, and consequent suffering and unrest, the leaders realized that they would have to resort to other methods in order to hold their following and to retain their prestige with the workers in general. They, therefore, launched an agitation for higher tariffs and the legalization of beer. By way of popularizing the latter issue, and also in order to demonstrate to the workers that the unions were active in their interest, beer parades and mass meetings were staged in various parts of the country.

However, with the intensity of the depression, the unrest among the workers increased and more fundamental problems could no longer be slighted. The Federation, therefore, began to demand federal relief, whereas it first followed President Hoover in opposing it. And at its last convention in November it indorsed compulsory un-

employment insurance, although it had consistently opposed it for some forty years. Simultaneously, the temper of the labor leaders has changed. President Green has declared that he has lost faith in the owners and managers of business. He has also announced that the unemployed have had their confidence in our institutions shaken. The Executive Council of the Federation, in its annual report, has also indicted ownership and management of industry as being responsible for the present chaotic situation. As the spokesman of the Federation, President Green, in what has been characterized as the "greatest fighting speech of his career," stated that "labor's patience with industrial management was at an end and that its paramount policy henceforth would be to resort to forceful methods." Since then President Green has even threatened a general strike in order to secure the thirty-hour week. But while testifying before a Senate Committee he tempered his threat by stating that the Federation would rather secure this and other important demands through legislation.

This emphasis on legislation is a revolutionary departure from the traditional policy of the Federation. Ever since the 1890's, when the Socialists and pure and simple unionists locked horns, the conservative union leaders championed voluntarism. The argument ran that the workers must be taught to rely chiefly upon union activity for the protection and improvement of their conditions. Such legislation as social insurance, which would make the government a party toward improving and safeguarding conditions of the workers, must not be permitted. Demanding compulsory unemployment insurance, the thirty-hour week, and other similar labor legislation is a repudiation of the traditional policy of voluntarism.

The railroad unions, the outstanding of which were never committed to voluntarism, have launched a more elaborate program than the Federation in order to secure "first, temporary and emergency measures to relieve acute suffering and distress , second, a national program of aggressive action to bring about economic recovery." Most of their demands require legislative sanction and government participation. Thus, they demand

emergency and permanent relief; the establishment of the principle of the six-hour day; provision for retirement insurance to provide security in old age; limi-

tation of hours of service; extension of the principle of workmen's compensation; establishment of payroll reserves to provide security in the nature of unemployment insurance, and legislation requiring that trains shall be adequately manned by full crews and train lengths limited within the proper bounds of safe, efficient operation.

RADICAL ACTIVITIES AND THE UNEMPLOYED

The radicals are also intensifying their activities. The Communists have staged another hunger march on Washington. The hunger march was used as the focal point for local and state marches and demonstrations. Children parades and other demonstrations were also resorted to in order to call attention to the plight of the workers and particularly of the unemployed. These activities frequently resulted in clashes with the public authorities. Not infrequently the police resorted to unusual brutality. The press and other agencies generated considerable hysteria during the national hunger march. As a result, the marchers encountered hostile receptions in most of the communities through which they passed. The scandalous treatment meted out to them in Washington is common knowledge. The Socialists and other radical elements have also resorted to demonstrations and parades in order to advertise the suffering of the unemployed and underpaid workers.

As a result of the depression, with its consequent unemployment and suffering, a new type of labor organization has come into existence. While there have been organizations of the unemployed in previous periods of American history, they have never reached such a high development. These organizations of the unemployed, in so far as they have a genuinely labor orientation, were founded by the radical and other opposition elements in the labor movement. Even at present the conservative labor elements seem to be wholly unconcerned with this type of organization. The purpose of these new labor bodies is to secure more adequate relief and otherwise to promote and protect the interests of the unemployed in such matters as evictions, water, gas and electric service, and so on. They are also demanding various forms of legislation in order to make the lot of the unemployed and underpaid easier, such an unemployment insurance, public works programs, and so on. Some of these groups are also resorting to various forms of self-help, and others have begun to

assert themselves politically. At present there are two national organizations of unemployed workers. The oldest is the National Unemployed Council, founded and conducted under Communist auspices. The Federation of Unemployed Leagues of America consists of the various unemployed groups of socialists and other radical and progressive elements. A considerable number of organizations of the unemployed that have no national affiliation are guided by members of the Conference for Progressive Labor Action.

It is, of course, difficult to estimate the membership of these organizations of the unemployed, but they aggregate several hundred thousand. In addition to serving an immediate need, these unemployed labor organizations have potentialities for strengthening the labor movement. They may play an important part in the future organization of unions. Already they have served a useful purpose in checking the use of unemployed as strike-breakers. Their greatest potentialities must lie on the political field as sentiment develops for independent political action. Already in Seattle and Superior, Wisconsin, these unemployed organizations have become deeply involved in politics.

LABOR IN POLITICS

Notwithstanding that the conservative labor elements have shifted emphasis to legislation, they still adhere to their non-partisan political policy. Because the Democrats have usually been more responsive to labor's legislative demands, their party has become the political expression of conservative labor. In the midwest and far west, where the Progressive Republicans have usually been sympathetic, labor has aligned itself with them. Since this last election was a landslide for the Democrats and Progressives, the labor non-partisan policy was highly successful. But the confusion that usually arises from the non-partisan political policy was more clearly evident in the past election. The leaders were more divided; that is, the conservative Republicans received support from more leaders than in the past. A new complicating factor also presented itself in the form of the Wage Earners' Protective Conference. This agency was founded to further high tariffs. It is headed by the best-known vice-president of the Federation. Moreover, some of the prominent lead-

ers of unions affiliated with the Federation are its officers and sponsors. By indorsing, in many instances, candidates that were opposed by the Federation's Non-Partisan Committee, the Conference created considerable confusion, which was not entirely cleared up by being aired in public.

Now that the Federation has repudiated voluntarism and, in common with the railroad and other independent unions, is emphasizing paternalistic legislation, the question has again arisen whether the conservative unions will ultimately resort to independent political action, as they have in the past depression periods. Speculation is also rife whether the railroad unions will again be in the vanguard, as they were in launching the La Follette candidacy in 1924. That there is a growing sentiment for independent political action among the conservative unionists is manifest by a close study of expressions and actions. However, it is questionable whether that sentiment is strong enough just now to swing the unions immediately toward independent political action. Most of the leaders are tied up with the two old parties. This is particularly true of the state and local labor leaders, who are usually cogs of some political machine. Nevertheless, conditions are impelling, and it was these state and local leaders who were chiefly responsible in swinging the Federation to demanding, first, federal relief and, then, compulsory unemployment insurance. They are closest to the rank and file and are more cognizant of their suffering and discontent. However, it is hardly probable that the conservative labor leaders will show great interest in independent political action until the Roosevelt administration has had its try at improving conditions. Should conditions fail to improve materially within the next year or two, it is inevitable that even the conservative unions will turn toward independent political action. At the last convention of the Federation, independent political action was not even seriously discussed.

Although the depression is in its fourth year, the independent parties that cater to labor failed in the last election to garner sufficient votes to be counted as an effective opposition. When compared with the previous presidential election, the vote of the minor parties tripled. However, their total vote will only slightly exceed a million. The Socialist party is the only one of these minor parties that polled

a substantial vote, officially recorded as 906,900. Its nearest rival, the Communist party, is credited with 102,785 votes. The gain is tremendous for the Socialist party, for in 1928 it received only 0.7 per cent of the total vote cast. It has also approximated its high water mark of 1920, when it received 964,470 votes. But on a percentage basis it is far behind its record of 1912, when it was credited with 6 per cent of the total vote cast. In 1920 it had 3.2 per cent, and in 1932 it is credited with less than 2.5 per cent of the total vote cast.

The Farmer-Labor party of Minnesota is the outstanding successful independent political action group. It is now the dominant political party of that state. In addition to controlling the municipal governments of Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Rochester, the Farmer-Labor party is in control of the state government, and with the Democrats will control the state legislature. It also elected five congressmen. The Non-Partisan League, its close ally, is again in full control of North Dakota.

Undaunted by the relatively poor showing, the elements that favor independent political action are already laying plans for consolidating their forces. The League for Independent Political Action is taking the lead. Preliminary conferences are being held in preparation for a national joint conference in order to consider the formation of a "united new party." The aim is to run candidates in the congressional election of 1934 and thereby lay the ground for a united front in the 1936 presidential campaign. Howard Y. Williams, national director of the League, states: "The ramparts of the old parties cracked in the last election. Millions changed the political habits of a lifetime. The election of Roosevelt means not a rebirth of the Democratic party, but a desperate attempt to secure an immediate new deal by any means."

PUBLIC HEALTH AND MEDICINE

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ABSTRACT

In 1932 the general death-rate and that for several important diseases reached new low points; unemployment, however, seems to have caused an increase in mental and nervous disturbances. The work of local health departments and the social hygiene movement suffered serious losses. Important reports were issued by the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care and the Commission on Medical Education. Hospitals experienced a decrease of business, and showed increasing interest in group insurance. Nurses had a difficult time meeting urgent needs with decreased facilities. Progress in biological and chemical research appeared to continue unabated.

The depression failed again in 1932 to raise the death rate. On the contrary the rate dropped, and dropped to a new low figure. For this reason it has been suggested that 1932 will prove to have been the healthiest year of all time for the American people. But that does not necessarily follow. It is doubtful if the people enjoyed the health and vigor of former years; it is apparent that they were not as healthy mentally. That conditions in general were not far worse is due in large measure to the devoted efforts of those engaged in health and medical work. Changes of significance may be considered under the following topics: the status of the people's health, public-health work, medical practice, and biological and chemical research.

THE STATUS OF THE PEOPLE'S HEALTH

The mortality rate for some millions of industrial policyholders of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company in 1932 reached the unprecedented figure of 8.34 per 1,000. The official figures not being available each year until approximately twelve months after the close of the year, the Metropolitan rate has been used for a long time and has proved to be a reliable index of the official rate. Presumably, then, the 1932 official death-rate for the United States was below 11.1, the rate for 1931, which was the lowest on record.

The infant mortality rate of the registration area for 1931 (made available in 1932) was 61.6 per 1,000 live births. This too marks a low record, the rate for 1930 having been 64.6.

For typhoid fever, measles, diphtheria, pneumonia, tuberculosis, diarrheal diseases, and conditions incidental to pregnancy and child

birth, new minimal rates among Metropolitan industrial policyholders were established for the year. The tuberculosis rate in 1932 reached a new minimum for the sixth successive year—70 per 100,000.

For three diseases the Metropolitan mortality records were distinctly unfavorable. The rate for cancer increased from 85.4 in 1931 to 92.1 per 100,000 for the past year. This increase is in line with the trend of the last seven years. Mortality from diabetes reached a new high record of 23.3. This death-rate has now risen continuously for eight years. Heart disease, the leading cause of death since 1922, continued to take an increasing toll of human lives, reaching a new high point of 157.4 per 100,000.

What influences have made possible the lowest mortality rate of all time and these other favorable records during the worst year thus far of the worst economic depression in a generation? Most important, perhaps, is the fact that we have been lucky in regard to epidemic diseases. Influenza was less widespread than in previous years; the cases occurring were less virulent and resulted in fewer attacks of pneumonia. Another important factor in the situation was the continued and effective functioning of health departments, the medical profession, and the social service agencies. While there have been budgetary curtailments, medical and health services have withstood a remarkable test. They deserve our highest praise. In addition to these major factors, it should be remembered that unemployment brought many persons rest and leisure, more sunshine, and opportunity for outdoor exercise. Enforced rest has had the effect, possibly, of protecting persons with tuberculosis, heart disease, and high blood pressure. Fatal industrial accidents, too, have been fewer as the result of curtailed employment, and deaths due to automobile traffic have been fewer because presumably there has been less traffic. That a general low mortality rate may be due to our eating less remains unproved. Such a causal relation would imply reduced mortality resulting from a decrease in deaths from diseases that are usually caused by excessive eating. If, however, there are any such diseases, they are the degenerative maladies such as diabetes and arteriosclerosis and related kidney conditions. Since the death-rate due to these conditions has increased during the depression, it is

difficult to find any support for the alleged relation between overeating and a high death-rate. There are reports of increases in the incidence of malnutrition among school children and of rickets among younger children which one cannot hastily dismiss. Apparently the central European powers are still paying the penalty of malnutrition among children during the war. It is not unlikely that we may later reap the effects of reduced food budgets now being imposed by dire poverty upon an increasingly large number of families. Finally, it must be remembered that death-rates are not necessarily a reliable index of health. People may be sick and not die. They may go about for years with depleted vitality and live on low planes of health and vigor.

The mental health of the people has apparently been more affected by unemployment and the depression than has their physical health. While there has been no general increase in mental diseases needing institutional treatment, at least a few hospital superintendents are beginning to report increases in admissions and readmissions that they ascribe in part to economic conditions. But it is a little early to look for such results, as mental diseases usually take years to develop. There were other evidences of the effects of hard times on the people's mental health. Certain hospitals are having increasing difficulty in returning patients to their homes because of the inability and unwillingness of their families to care for them; as a result there is institutional overcrowding and more difficulty in maintaining standards of treatment. Most significant of all, there is a marked increase in the milder types of mental and nervous disturbances, behavior disorders, and personality maladjustments, particularly among the unemployed. As one observer stated, "The long-continued uncertainty and anxiety are taxing the endurance of the strongest and are unquestionably sowing the seeds of much future mental disease. Thousands of individuals are struggling to maintain their mental equilibrium while their own security and that of their dependents is threatened, shaken, or finally shattered."

PUBLIC-HEALTH WORK

Perhaps the most important tendency among health departments during the year was a most unfortunate one—the slashing of budg-

ets, which in some instances has almost wrecked the department. Returns received from an inquiry in the early autumn indicated a drop in the budgets of 304 health departments from approximately $50,000,000 to about $47,000,000. Some of the health officers reported that further curtailments were being contemplated. The effects of the depression were particularly serious among county health departments, the budgets of 144 such departments having been reduced 16.7 per cent from 1931 to 1932. The number of whole-time county health officers on January 1, 1931, was 583; during that year the number probably increased, but by December 31, 1932, it had dropped to 581. An important event of the year was the publication of a volume on community health organization which summarizes to date the work of the Committee on Administrative Practice of the American Public Health Association. The report, published by the Commonwealth Fund, was edited by Ira V. Hiscock.

Awards for 1931 in the interchamber health-conservation contest were announced during 1932 by the United States Chamber of Commerce and the American Public Health Association. The following cities were presented with the awards: Group 1, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Group 2, Rochester, New York; Group 3, New Haven, Connecticut; Group 4, Evanston, Illinois; Group 5, Brookline, Massachusetts; and Group 6, La Salle, Illinois.

In the mental hygiene field, a significant development was the opening of the Payne-Whitney Psychiatric Clinic of the New York Hospital–Cornell University Medical Center. This clinic provides a noteworthy advance in the trend toward the unification of physical and mental medicine. Considerable progress was also made in the development of psychiatric education in medical schools. Child-guidance work, an important aspect of mental hygiene, seems to have held its own. While budgets were reduced, no major clinics, with the exception of one in New Orleans, closed during the year.

In the social hygiene field, increased emphasis was placed on medical and legal measures with relatively less attention to educational work. Many persons formerly going to private physicians or to pay clinics for treatment of the venereal diseases were forced to patronize free clinics, with the result that the latter institutions have become overcrowded, and some have been unable to meet a staggering in-

crease of case loads. A few clinics lacked even necessary drugs. "Patients wait hour after hour," reported the American Social Hygiene Association, "and finally turn away discouraged, their untreated infections becoming doubly serious to themselves and doubly dangerous to others." Studies made by the Association show unmistakably a trend toward a policy of toleration in respect to commercialized prostitution, with flagrant solicitation, and the return in some cities of districts equivalent to the "red-light" areas of prewar days.

In tuberculosis work, a successful demonstration of a new paper-film method of X-raying school children was carried on in New Haven. It was shown that X-ray diagnosis through this method could be carried on at only sixty cents per child, as compared with three dollars under the old method. The Milbank Memorial Fund was especially instrumental in encouraging experimentation in this field. School-health work has made substantial advances. The health department of Detroit worked out an admirable program of health education in the schools in co-operation with the National Dairy Council. A school-health project in the Bellevue-Yorkville district of New York City was completed and a favorable report issued.

MEDICAL PRACTICE

The Committee on the Costs of Medical Care issued several important reports during the year and in November made public its final report of recommendations. While the report deals with the entire field of medicine, including public health, its influence has been felt particularly in the field of private practice. The principal recommendations of the Committee were supported by a large majority of the forty-eight members, including sixteen of the twenty-four doctors of medicine. There was a dissenting report signed by eight physicians and one layman, and another signed by two dentists. In addition, there were two personal statements, each signed by one member. The Committee recommended: (1) that medical service, both preventive and therapeutic, be furnished largely by groups of physicians, dentists, nurses, and associated personnel organized for rendering complete home, office, and hospital care, pref-

erably around a hospital; (2) that all basic public-health services be extended so that they will be available to the entire population; (3) that the cost of medical care be placed upon a group-payment basis through the use of insurance, through the use of taxation, or through the use of both these measures; (4) that the study, evaluation, and co-ordination of medical service be considered important functions of each state and local community; and (5) that professional education be developed through various specified measures. The principal minority report condemned "the corporate practice of medicine financed through intermediary agencies." It asked that "government competition in the practice of medicine" be discontinued, but desired that governmental care of the indigent be expanded so as to relieve the medical profession of this burden. It was not opposed to insurance and expressed a belief that medical societies may develop practical plans for spreading the costs of medical care.

The report of the Committee aroused interest throughout the nation among both professional and lay leaders. At first there was a tendency on the part of medical societies to condemn the report without carefully studying it. Soon, however, they began appointing special committees to study the report. In a considerable number of cities community and professional leaders joined in calling a conference to consider the applicability of the recommendations to local conditions.

The Commission on Medical Education also made its final report public during the year. In the opinion of the Commission, some plan of distributing the cost of medical care "through collective provisions for medical care needs to be worked out." It is essential, however, states the Commission, "to keep clearly in mind that the most important factor is the quality of care, not the plan of organization nor the method of financing." Thus, medical education becomes of paramount importance. The Commission would make "the student the unit of education, not the courses." Emphasis upon the physical examination and upon preventive methods is indorsed, as well as upon the "study of the patient as a whole, in which are considered factors of emotional tone, conditions of employment, habits of living, and other features of daily life which often determine proper diagnosis, treatment, and prevention."

The Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools carried through its second grading, 80 per cent of nursing schools in the United States participating. Improvement was notable in the raising of entrance requirements and in other respects. Economic stress hastened the closing of many schools; 135 shut down after an "accredited" list was published in 1931.

Among the hospitals of the country, there was observed a general disposition to formulate and introduce "suitable formula for the distribution of the costs of hospital care on the so-called hospital insurance or group hospitalization principle." It was also reported that the public is becoming rapidly conscious that the care of the indigent when sick is a governmental responsibility which should be paid for from tax revenue, whether the patient is cared for in governmentally owned or private institutions. Increasing attention was also given by general hospitals to the care of cancer patients through the installation of cancer clinics. Finally, there was a marked reduction in the use of hospital beds during the year. A compilation of data from 91 general hospitals in 87 communities of 35 states showed that the occupancy rate had dropped from approximately 72 per cent at the beginning of 1929 to 52 per cent at the end of 1932.

The number of physicians in the United States continued to increase, there being in 1932 approximately 161,700, including a few not active. The number of new graduates of recognized medical schools grew from 4,735 in 1931 to 4,936 in 1932. According to a report of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care, published during the year, the average net income of general practitioners in 1929 was $3,900, while that of complete specialists was approximately $10,000. There is evidence that both these incomes have been materially reduced during recent years.

Nurses, particularly, were brought in close contact with the effects of the depression, in attempting to give prenatal care to inadequately nourished mothers confined in overcrowded public hospitals, in serving patients who have half-starved themselves in a pathetic effort to maintain their children's health, and in caring for residents of farm communities, who call the nurse only in greatest emergency, because payment, if it is made at all, must be in terms of butter, eggs, or other products of the soil. The salaries of public-health

nurses were cut in many communities almost to the subsistence level. Private-duty nurses struggled with what may be called "share the work" plans. Cuts in the salaries of hospital nurses were general. It appears, however, that with all the hazards of the depression, the morale of nurses remained high.

BIOLOGICAL AND CHEMICAL RESEARCH

A toxoid injection which will build up the resistance of the individual to scarlet fever and a concentrated and purified toxin for use with formalin in the preparation of the toxoid were developed by Dr. M. V. Veldee of the United States Public Health Service and were reported in May, 1932. The toxoid injection has been used among approximately fifteen hundred children in a demonstration of its efficacy.

Immunity to yellow fever has been made possible by the use of a mouse virus mixed with an immune serum, as a result of the investigations of Drs. T. P. Hughes and W. A. Sawyer of the Rockefeller Foundation. These investigators have also devised a test for the effectiveness of the protection thus made available. While yellow fever has been eradicated from the United States, it is still endemic on the west coast of Africa, and from there may spread to all parts of the world unless vigilance is maintained. This discovery, therefore, promises to be one of first importance.

A notable advance was made in the treatment of pernicious anemia by Dr. William B. Castle and associates of Thorndike Memorial Laboratory of Boston, which may be applicable to other deficiency diseases. These investigators showed that pernicious anemia may be caused by the failure of the human organism to manufacture in the stomach, and to absorb, a special substance produced normally by the action of the stomach juice on vitamin B_2, but supplied artificially in liver extract. Thus, lack of the fundamental substance, vitamin B_2, lack of the intrinsic factor in the stomach juice, or lack of the absorptive capacity may cause the pernicious anemia.

The Nobel prize in medicine was awarded to Sir Charles Scott Sherrington of Oxford and Professor Edgar Douglas Adrian of Cambridge, particularly for studies on the reactions of nerves, the dynamics of the nervous system, and the relationship of nervous reaction

and nervous disease. The $1,500 prize in memory of Dr. John Phillips, provided by the American College of Physicians, was awarded to Dr. O. T. Avery for research on the pneumonia germ. The gold medal of the American Medical Association was presented to Drs. Frank A. Hartman, C. W. Greene, J. J. Maisel, and G. W. Thorn, of the University of Buffalo, for their original work on the development and use of a hormone from the suprarenal cortex.

In the critical year or two now ahead, two serious questions face the field of public health and medicine. First, will local health departments be able successfully to combat pleas for sweeping economies and maintain such efficiency as will enable them to protect the people from the ravages of communicable diseases and particularly from serious epidemics? Second, will medicine answer the challenge of the facts revealed by the report of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care; will the profession assume the leadership and do something to improve the situation, or will the leadership pass into lay hands?

THE FAMILY

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ABSTRACT

The year 1932 was uneventful for the American family, aside from the effects of the depression. Economic pressure has decreased family morale, increased tension, and hurt children and youth. Married women working outside the family have especially suffered from economic insecurity. Educational activities, notably of the churches and social agencies, have continued. Family research has not been neglected. The most important contribution along this line has come from the investigation of the Research Committee on Social Trends.

TRENDS

No year of family experience has been more significant since the founding of the Republic than that of 1932, but in special happenings relating to the family it has been relatively uneventful. One cause, the depression, explains both facts. Only within the home have the consequences of unemployment registered their full force. The pressure for relief coming from those suffering from the economic situation has demanded an attention from social agencies, public administrators, philanthropy, and educational organizations that has forbidden the usual degree of interest in activities that in normal times are turned toward advancing marriage and family relationships. The reduction, or, for some, the elimination, of wages, of salaries, and income required for family maintenance has led to a widespread dependence on outside resources and a lessening of family morale, in some cases through an increasing parasitic willingness to take from others the means of support, and in other cases from a reluctance, through false pride, to accept aid greatly needed. The emotional reactions of men and women unable to get work and of those dependent upon them have also undermined family security and respect. Malnutrition has arisen from limited dietaries and lack of ability to plan nutritious menus when the variety of food was greatly reduced. Lessened pride in personal appearance and home furnishings and decorations has come about because of restricted funds with which to purchase or repair, and inability to cope with such situations.

A disintegrating influence has come from the going of many of the

unemployed to live with relatives, especially when the presence of small children has increased the danger in this joining of families. When children who have married contrary to their parents' desires have been forced back upon their former homes for support, tension has been unescapable. There has been a noticeable drift, from cities and large towns to the country, of families and individuals who have rural relatives, and in the cities there has been the doubling up and the moving of families that have attempted by reducing rents and lowering their standards to keep within their diminishing income. The fact that relief agencies seldom take care of rents unless the families are evicted has increased the feeling of insecurity among many receiving public relief. It is the conviction of a considerable number of social workers that the "share your work" program tends to make two families dependent instead of one.

THE DEPRESSION AND FAMILY PSYCHOLOGY

The necessity of accepting relief has been humiliating to a multitude of families, and this feeling tends toward psychological consequences of the greatest importance to the family. Individuals within the same family react in different ways to their distressing circumstances. While one develops the conviction that it is the business of society to furnish support, another will become broken in spirit because assistance has to be accepted. In many homes the husband and father out of work is without prestige. This has led not only to a breakdown of family discipline and to constant friction but often, on the part of the man himself, to a tendency either to hide behind a neurotic illness or to react morosely and with feelings of guilt or, by bullying the family, to assume previous dominance. Some men have grown aggressively quarrelsome, easily starting troubles with neighbors, organizations, social workers, and the like, as well as with members of the family, while others have rapidly lost self-confidence, especially as they realize that they are blamed by other members of the family for their failure to get work. The trouble has been especially great in families where the marriage of the woman was largely motivated by the desire for economic support. The emotional trend seems decidedly toward fear rather than radicalism, and even families that are economically well-established reflect the prevailing feeling of insecurity.

Although the depression appears not to have appreciably increased the number of the insane who have to be separated from their families, there has been an increase of mental troubles of a less serious type, such as melancholia, irritability, worry, and the like, and these morbid trends find their frankest expression within the family circle. The mere fact that the man who was formerly away at work has to spend so much of his time hanging around the house increases the liability of irritation, morbid reaction, and family instability.

The married woman who works outside the family has had a special problem. The economy program of the government, for example, forbidding the husband and wife both to be on the pay-roll, influenced separation and divorces in Washington D.C. to such an extent that a regulation was made that divorces gotten for the motive of holding jobs, if proved, would not prevent discharges.

The depression has affected prostitution, but chiefly, it appears, in enticing women of promiscuous habits into the commercializing of their conduct and in lowering the standards of living of individual prostitutes, especially those who have previously been the kept women of individual men, so that they have become publicly more aggressive. There is, however, a feeling on the part of some social workers that there has been an actual increase of prostitution as a result of the depression; but even if economic circumstances tend to increase the potential supply of women, financial conditions lessen the demands of men.

Much thought has been given to the effect of the depression on children and youth, and rightly so, since these results are likely to be most lasting. In the case of boys we have a spectacular expression of the prevailing family strain in the large number under twenty-one who have left home and gone hitch-hiking or riding the freights, perhaps in the beginning in search of employment. Their travels reveal the attraction of climatic comfort, as the direction of their migration responds to season. For example, at least one-fifth of the approximately 30,000 men and boys fed at the Yuma, Arizona, soup kitchen from November 1 to November 15, 1932, were reported as under twenty-one years of age. This army of youth brings into high relief the menace of the depression as it strikes those within the prepara-

tory period; but the consequences for younger children, although less dramatic, are no less serious emotionally, or less likely to lead to lasting scars.

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

In the magnificent attempt of social leadership to meet the challenge of our present disaster, educational activities of importance to the family have not been neglected. Teachers of home economics, in spite of the fact that they have felt the financial retrenchment rather more than most educators, at least in the public schools, have taken a leading part in these conserving efforts and have done much in stimulating increased productivity within the family, in developing better judgment in the use of lessened resources, especially in planning well-balanced, low-cost meals and in encouraging youth to help keep up the morale of their own households. Home economics instruction has shown through the year a decided increase of emphasis upon the relationship aspects of the family.

The educational activities brought forth by the present crisis, or continued and developed in spite of the depression, are too varied even for classification in so brief a summary. The recent period, characterized by mere destructive criticism of marriage and the family, has clearly come to an end, and in its place from every quarter appears evidence of a new attitude in the attempt to bring to marriage and family experience the present resources of modern science. The definite interest reported in the churches last year has increased as more individual churches have responded to their denominational leadership. The appointment of L. Foster Wood as a full-time secretary of the Committee on Marriage and the Home of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America is evidence of the new trend. In the Roman Catholic church the development of interest in the field of marriage and the family particularly deserves notice. The Social Action Department of the National Catholic Welfare Conference has given one of its monthly programs to the subject of family problems. Courses on the family in Catholic colleges, particularly in women's colleges, increased during the year. Some of the latter are now offering courses in parent education. Much progress was made in adult study clubs, and in one rural diocese as many as 360 parent-education study clubs were established during 1932.

Colleges, on the whole, appear less sensitive to the need of education for family life than do the churches. As one correspondent pertinently put it, "Colleges, too, are widely showing signs of discomfort arising from a guilty conscience, and are endeavoring to take more cognizance of the family in their curricula." An example of this interest was the three-day "Parley on Marriage" held by Wesleyan University at Middletown, Connecticut, organized by the students and financed by them. On the other hand, others report that the continuance of the timidity of college administrators is retarding the development of the instruction which youth wishes and needs and will only get apparently by pressure on those responsible for college and university policies. There is special need of instruction interpreting marriage and family experience in accord with their specialized interests in law schools, medical schools, and theological seminaries, and at present there is beginning to be a faint recognition of the value of this instruction in the last of these three institutions.

The Institute of Family Relations at Los Angeles, under the direction of Paul Popenoe, has stressed during the year its educational program. A survey of Los Angeles County revealed at least twenty-six different persons or organizations undertaking in some measure marriage counseling. The American Social Hygiene Society reports that it has data on file concerning thirty-five agencies which give marriage counsel as an integral part of their various services. The Merrill-Palmer School during the year has opened an advisory service for college women, offering an opportunity for consultation on personal, family, and professional problems. The Institute of Family Relations, in the city of New York, held in October the first of its conferences and discussions of the sociology of the family. An unusual educational service was announced by the Woman's Trade Union League of New York City in evening courses, described as the first academic courses ever designed especially for domestics.

There have been during the year fewer conferences concerned with family and marriage interests than in years past, but the list is impressive and much too long for inclusion in this report. The International Conference of Social Work, held at Frankfurt on the Main, made the family the theme of the conference. This conference drew representatives of professional social work from all parts of Europe and America, and from Asia, Africa, and Australia. Another impor-

tant conference was the International Eugenics Congress which held its third meeting in New York during August.

RESEARCH

There has been no lessening of interest in the research of the family. During the year President Hoover's Research Committee on Social Trends carried on a study of the family by William F. Ogburn, which was published early in 1933. This was the most important investigation during the period. The year was notable also for several valuable contributions from those interested in American family law, dealing with specialized legal aspects of marriage and divorce. The reports of the last year's White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, that have been published in 1933, and of the President's Conference on Home Building and Home Ownership have been widely read by students of the family. James M. Williams' study, published in 1933 under the title *Human Aspects of Unemployment and Relief*, portrays vividly the effects of the depression upon family life.

BIRTH CONTROL

That there was a spread of birth-control practices during 1932 appears unquestionable. Leaders in the movement are giving more stress to its eugenic aspects. There seems also to be a tendency in the birth-control controversy to appeal to fact rather than sentiment. Both advocates and opponents recognize that this is in accord with the prevailing attitude of the American people regarding this public question. Two events drew the attention of the public to birth control during 1932. One was the advocacy of birth control by Governor James R. Beverly, of Porto Rico, as a means of lessening poverty of the population of that island, and the protest this brought from those opposed to contraceptive practices; and the other was the hearing before the Commission on Ways and Means of the House of Representatives upon House Bill 11082, a bill to lessen the restriction of the giving of information relating to the prevention of conception, and the hearing of a subcommittee of the Committee on the Judiciary of the United States Senate of Senate Bill 4436 to amend the tariff act of 1930 so as to permit legally licensed physicians to import books and articles relating to the prevention of conception.

Undoubtedly the depression has strengthened the demand of those seeking a freer distribution of the knowledge of contraception. The trend in Los Angeles County, which now has twenty-four, or one-fourth, of all the birth-control clinics in the United States, enforces the position of those who maintain that this type of clinic will eventually become incorporated with existing public health facilities, since in that area eighteen of the twenty-four are maintained by the county department of health, one by the city of Pasadena, and one supported by public funds.

MARRIAGE AND DIVORCES

From many quarters comes the opinion that there is a lessening of marriages in part, at least, as a result of the depression. The report of the Census Bureau confirms this trend. Marriages declined, from 1930 to 1931, 6.1 per cent, and divorces, 4.1 per cent during the same period. Reno, Nevada, reports a decrease of 1,143 divorces during 1932 as compared with the previous year.

THE CHILD

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ABSTRACT

The year 1932 saw better organization of relief resources and greatly increased expenditures—78 per cent in 1932 over 1931 for 124 cities. The plight of large numbers of homeless minors has become serious. Although the general trend of the infant mortality rate has continued downward, impairment of the health of many children through malnutrition is indicated. While total numbers show decline in juvenile delinquency, analysis of offenses suggests that conduct problems have become more serious. Child labor on the whole has shown a decrease for 1931; figures for 1932 are not yet available. Few legislative measures were passed during 1932 relating to other subjects of social welfare than relief of unemployment and curtailment of expenditures.

In reviewing what has happened to children during the year 1932, one remembers first that this was the third year of the depression, and the question follows of what has been its effect upon children. Have expenditures for family relief been adequate to insure food, shelter, clothing, and general security in the home for all children? While the testimony submitted to the Senate Committee on Manufactures[1] indicated relief had been far from adequate for these purposes, 1932 saw better organization of relief resources and greatly increased expenditures.

The amount of this increase may be estimated from the reports of nearly 1,000 relief agencies, both public and private, in some 125 cities which have been reporting to the United States Children's Bureau each month their expenditures for general and work relief for families as well as for special groups—mothers' assistance, veterans' aid, etc.—and the meals and lodgings provided for the homeless and transient who are dependent.

The reports received from these agencies show that from September, 1931, there was a continuous rise in relief expenditures for seven months. By March, 1932, relief costs were higher than for any previous month during the period of the depression. For that month an expenditure of $28,274,678 was reported for 124 cities, which include 56 per cent of the urban population and 31 per cent of the total population of the United States. Approximately 1,000,000 families were

[1] See *Report of Hearings on Costigan-LaFollette Relief Bill* (72d Cong.).

on the relief rolls in these 124 cities at that time. After a decline during the spring and summer, expenditures again increased rapidly. The March peak was passed in the autumn and the increase for the year 1932 over 1931 was 78 per cent for these 124 cities.

The hope entertained by some in 1929 and 1930 that privately raised funds would be adequate for unemployment relief, and next that some expansion of local, and then of state-aided, public relief would meet the emergency was not abandoned by Congress until just before its adjournment in June, 1932.

In 1931 and 1932, as local resources approached exhaustion because of the unprecedented and growing burden of unemployment, eight states—Illinois, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin—passed legislation providing state aid to local communities for relief purposes, and three other states—California, Maryland, and New Hampshire—made small amounts available. Finally, in the summer of 1932, help in the form of loans or advances against road funds were made available to the states by the federal government through the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. By January 1, 1933, under the terms of this act, loans or advances totaling $112,614,673 were made to thirty-six states and two territories for relief of the unemployed.

The plight of non-family groups, especially homeless men and girls in metropolitan centers and transient men and boys in the South, Southwest, and West, became serious in 1932. Estimates made by railroads, police, and social service agencies serving these groups of homeless and transient indicated that 20 per cent of the hundreds of thousands of transients were minors. The provision made for transients in most communities has been to provide temporary care—lodgings for a few nights, a few meals—and then require them to move on. This tended to increase the habit of wandering and was for the country as a whole at least as costly as constructive permanent care would be. As states were unwilling to borrow to provide adequate care for non-residents, proposals were made in Congress to authorize direct grants by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation for the care of transients.[2]

[2] *Twentieth Annual Report of the Chief of the Children's Bureau*, pp. 5–9. Hearings on S. 5121 (Cutting Bill, January 13–20, Manufactures Committee of the 72d Congress).

In addition to relief in their own homes,[3] dependent children are cared for in orphanages and in foster homes. It is not surprising to find that during this depression these types of care have also increased. In the seventeen metropolitan centers reporting regularly to the Children's Bureau, the number of children cared for in foster homes rose steadily until by December, 1932, there was a 30 per cent increase over the monthly average for 1929 in the number of children who were being provided for away from their own homes in this way. In nineteen metropolitan areas, however, the number cared for in orphanages or institutions dropped about 5 per cent during the same period. This 30 per cent increase in foster-home care when orphanages were compelled to reduce their population 5 per cent can be explained only as reflecting a changed public opinion with reference to these two methods of care.

Has the unprecedented expenditure for relief been adequate to safeguard the health and general welfare of children? This is not easy to determine. In the first place many of the effects will not be immediately apparent—malnutrition sufficiently prolonged and widespread will reduce resistance to disease, not necessarily this year, but in the future. Some losses cannot be evaluated statistically, and, as to others, accurate information is not available. But there are facts on which some conclusions can be based.

In the first place, we find that in these years of depression there have been fewer babies born. Like the infant mortality rate, the trend of the birth-rate has been downward, particularly during the past decade when the average annual decline has been 2 per cent. But in 1931 there was a decline of 5.8 per cent, so that the birth-rate was 17.8—a new low for this country—and the indications are that it probably reached 17 in 1932. Following the depression of 1921 there was also a sharp decline in the birth-rate. This decline, as one statistician has said, "can hardly be attributed to any factors other than unfavorable business conditions superimposed on those influences which have caused the general decline in the birth-rate."

For the health of children, the only general test is the very low one of the numbers who die and those who are sick with communicable

[3] Mothers' assistance funds, being in most states limited to widows, have been only slightly increased during the depression.

diseases. There is no nation-wide reporting as to undernourishment or deficiency diseases. Although the hospitals have reported some deaths due to starvation and others in which malnutrition was a secondary cause of death, such cases are quite unusual. The starvation so widespread in China, which Mrs. Buck has described for us in such a way we can never forget it, is unknown here. Nor do conditions in the United States parallel those of Austria and Germany during the blockade. We have no national shortage of food and clothing. Instead, we have the paradox of what is said to be overproduction of food and clothing when millions of people are inadequately fed and clothed. Instead of a higher infant death-rate during these years of depression, the general downward trend of the rate has been maintained in the United States and in other occidental countries also suffering from serious financial depressions. During the last ten years what is known as the "United States registration area" has been greatly expanded as the birth and death registration of one after another state has been found sufficiently accurate to be admitted to the registration area by the Vital Statistics Division of the United States Census Bureau. The infant mortality rate for this expanding registration area of the United States was 68 per 1,000 live births for 1929, 64 for 1930, and 62 for 1931. Preliminary and incomplete figures for 1932 indicate that the downward trend was continued during the past year. Of the foreign nations for which figures are available, six report a lower death-rate than our provisional rate of 62 deaths per 1,000 live births for 1931, as follows: New Zealand, 32; Australia, 47; Switzerland, 49; the Netherlands, 50; Sweden, 54; and Norway, 55.[4] England and Wales, where the rate is usually a little lower than the United States, had a rate of 66 in 1931, as compared with 60 in 1930. If figures were available for other countries, the United States would probably be found to have maintained the same relative international position it has had for several years.

The generally downward trend of the infant mortality rate over the last twenty years indicates that the low rates in these depression years may be ascribed to the cumulative effects of twenty years of

[4] The figures quoted are for 1931, with the exception of that for Norway, which is for 1929, and those for Australia and Sweden, which are for 1930.

educational work with mothers, the absence of any serious epidemics, together with favorable climatic conditions.

Practically all physicians are agreed that we are now going through a cycle of decreased virulence of infections and that this accounts in part at least for the low mortality and morbidity rates. They feel too that a lowered vitality of large numbers of children is inevitable if present conditions continue and that should a severe epidemic occur the results would probably be very serious.

Although the death-rate, then, is low, there is much evidence that the health of many children is being adversely affected by the prolonged depression. It comes from many places. For example, in New York City the number of cases diagnosed as malnutrition, inanition, or marasmus among children under sixteen years of age admitted to ten New York City hospitals during the first ten months of the year was 316 in 1929 and 457 in 1932.

There has been an increase too in the proportion of school children diagnosed as malnourished by physicians of the New York City Department of Health who make the physical examinations of these children. Thus in Manhattan the percentage of those examined found suffering from malnutrition had increased from 15.9 in 1929 to 25.6 in 1932.[5] Another example of the cumulative effect of underfeeding is found in the records of the Community Health Center of Philadelphia, which serves as a health examination bureau for all the social agencies of the Federation of Jewish Charities. An analysis recently made by the executive secretary of the Center showed that there has been a striking increase in the amount of malnutrition found among the children examined in 1931 and 1932 as compared with previous years. Of children under six years of age, 11.5 per cent of those examined in 1928, 1929, and 1930 were malnourished, as against 19.5 per cent of those examined in 1931 and 1932, while among children from six to sixteen years of age 29.8 per cent were found undernourished for the years 1928, 1929, and 1930, and 39 per cent in the years 1931 and 1932. Reports to the same general

[5] *Weekly Bulletin of the Department of Health, New York City, November 26, 1932.* The examinations of these children, according to the health commissioner of New York City, have been made by practically the same staff of physicians since 1927, so that a comparison of the percentage of malnutrition during the years seems permissible.

effect are coming from other widely scattered agencies which have kept comparable records.

After health, one is asked what about the conduct of children? Has the depression brought an increase in delinquency? Information for the calendar year 1932 is not yet available. Reports for 1931 are significant. In the nineteen juvenile courts having jurisdiction in large metropolitan areas which have reported to the Children's Bureau every year since the experiment in developing uniform statistics of delinquency was begun, the delinquency rates for boys from 1927 to 1930 rose, although each year of this period the percentage increase declined. Thus the 1928 increase over 1927 amounted to 8 per cent, the 1929 over 1928 to 5 per cent, and the 1930 increase over 1929 to only 1 per cent. This slowing-up in the percentage increase to a point where it was negligible between 1929 and 1930 was followed by a definite drop in the rate in 1931, amounting to 8 per cent from the preceding year. In the delinquency rates for girls the same general tendency was apparent. There was an upward trend from 1927 to 1929; the 1930 rate was the same as that of 1929; and the 1931 rate definitely lower than that of 1930. But while these total numbers indicate that delinquency was on the decline, an analysis of the offenses for which the children are brought to the courts raises grave doubts as to whether conduct problems have not, in fact, been growing more serious.

The most common offense for which boys are brought before the juvenile court is stealing. This is an offense that one would expect to see affected by economic conditions, and apparently this has happened, for in these nineteen courts for which comparable figures are available for the three-year period, the number of boys brought before the courts for stealing was as follows: 1929—10,105; 1930—10,850; 1931—11,189.

Not only did the numbers who were in conflict with the law for this offense increase, but stealing also constituted a larger percentage of the total number of offenses—43 per cent in 1931 as compared with 40 per cent in 1929.

It is interesting to find that in contrast with the increasing numbers brought before the courts for theft, the number of boys and girls before the court for truancy has declined. In the nineteen courts for

which reports have been made to the Bureau for five years, truancy accounted for 7 per cent of the boys brought to court in 1927 and for 5 per cent in 1932. There has, therefore, been an actual decline either in truancy or in interest in the enforcement of compulsory school laws through the juvenile courts. While school doubtless seems relatively more alluring now than in normal times, it is easy to believe that the reduction in truancy may also reflect reduction in the budget of the attendance department.

CHILD LABOR

The 1930 census enumeration revealed a substantially smaller proportion of working children in 1930 than in 1920. In 1930, 2,145,959 children ten to seventeen years, inclusive (113 in every 1,000 of this age group), were gainfully employed, compared with 2,773,506 (170 in every 1,000) in 1920. The decrease was marked in each age group but was greatest for the younger children.

In the reports as to work permits issued which the Children's Bureau receives annually from representative cities and states, there was evidence of a general trend toward a long school period for children and the postponement of entrance into industry to the age of sixteen years. It was noted in the *Annual Report* of the Children's Bureau for 1930 that a considerable increase in the number of work permits issued during the first months of 1929 was followed by a decline in the last months of the year. That decline has continued.

For the calendar year 1931 the reports from twenty-three states (for the state as a whole), and from thirty-six cities of 50,000 or more population in eleven other states, and from the District of Columbia showed 78,859 children fourteen and fifteen years of age who went to work for the first time during the year 1931. An examination of the individual reports shows decreased employment in 1931 as compared with 1930, ranging from 7 per cent in New Jersey to 61 per cent in Tennessee in the states reporting state-wide figures and among the cities reporting, from 15 per cent in Providence, Rhode Island, to 83 per cent in Springfield, Illinois. Increases reported in two states—Connecticut and Oregon—may be accounted for by changes in methods of certification. On the other hand, a few cities in these states showed increases which apparently reflect a greater demand for cheap labor in these particular areas.

At an emergency child-labor conference called by the Children's Bureau in December of 1932, Frances Perkins and Joseph M. Tone, commissioners of labor of New York and Connecticut, respectively, Beatrice McConnell of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor, Edward F. McGrady of the American Federation of Labor, Courtenay Dinwiddie of the National Child Labor Committee, and others testified to the appearance in some communities of a new variation of the old sweatshop, with low wages and long hours for children as well as for adults.

LEGISLATION AFFECTING CHILDREN

During 1932 there were only nine legislatures in regular session—Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, South Carolina, and Virginia. Eighteen state legislatures met in special session. Inasmuch as the major issues in the large majority of these states were relief of unemployment and curtailment of expenditures, few measures relating to other subjects of social welfare became laws.

Seven states—Illinois, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin—passed measures authorizing state aid for relief to families and individuals to meet needs growing out of the unemployment emergency.

Little legislation affecting children in industry was enacted. In fact the year may be characterized from the standpoint of child-labor standards as one of considerable effort but slight advance. Several attempts to break down present standards were unsuccessful. New Jersey authorized the commissioner of labor to determine what occupations are hazardous for minors under eighteen and prohibited their employment in such occupations. Kentucky authorized a survey of public education and required that every common-school district receiving aid from public taxation provide schools for the minimum legal school term.

Among the social welfare measures directly affecting children, enacted during the year, were the Kentucky law creating a state department of public welfare, to which were transferred all the powers and duties formerly vested in the state board of charities and corrections and in the commissioner of institutions; the Rhode Island law es-

tablishing a bureau of probation, parole, and criminal statistics under the direction of the state public welfare commission; the revision of the New Jersey laws relating to mothers' aid and the care of dependent children to remove the maximum limitation on relief grants and liberalize the eligibility requirements for mothers' aid, and the first appropriation for state aid for mothers' aid by Virginia.

Louisiana passed an adoption law requiring a petition to be filed with the juvenile court if the child is under seventeen, with the district court if the person is seventeen or over, requiring investigations, and providing for privacy, change of name, written consent, and annulment under certain conditions. Heretofore adoptions were effected by written instrument executed before a notary or recorder without court sanction in Louisiana.

State commissions interested in improving legislation relating to child welfare or social welfare have reported activity during the past year in Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, New Jersey, and Oregon. The New Jersey Pension Survey Commission drew up and recommended five bills relating to dependent children, all of which became law. In the other states the legislatures did not meet in regular session in 1932, but the commissions have been making studies and laying plans for the coming year. Massachusetts passed three of the bills that had been recommended by its children's commission in 1931. The Alaska Child Welfare Commission also has been preparing information for a report to the 1933 session of the legislature.

WOMEN

CHASE GOING WOODHOUSE
Institute of Women's Professional Relations

ABSTRACT

Women are beginning to realize that social welfare programs must be based upon a thoroughgoing reorganization of our economic habits of doing and of thinking. In the political sphere there are somewhat fewer women in elective offices but more, there, are experienced. The year 1932 saw little legislation affecting women, excepting certain enactments discriminating against married women. The 1930 census figures show encouraging trends in women's employment. They also indicate that women are becoming a more and more permanent part of the economic organization—the working women are somewhat older each census year and the proportion of married women gainfully employed increases markedly.

The 1930 census figures and the publications of the President's Committee on Recent Social Trends are the two chief sources for stocktaking on the position of women. But perhaps more vital than statistics is the thread running through the sayings and writings of 1932 emphasizing the idea that women, all women—those who work for pay and those who are homemakers—must realize that they are an integral part of the economic organization of today. For many years women have been interested in social welfare programs. They have been interested in politics but, again, largely from a social welfare point of view. A hearing on a child labor bill always meant a goodly representation of the leading women's organizations. A hearing on a banking bill saw few if any women on the stand.

The depression has taught at least a few thinking women, perhaps a number sufficient to leaven the mass, that welfare palliatives are not sufficient; that the plight of our economic organization calls for something deeper and more far-reaching; that economic security, a fair standard of living and leisure for all, is ready to hand if we will but take the thought necessary to start our economic activity toward the right goal. It may be that a new philosophy is formulating in the minds of organized women.

First, what of women's position in political activities? Where do they stand at this beginning of a "new deal"? More of them are being sent to the national conventions of the two major parties than was formerly the case, as Table I indicates.

The League of Women Voters ("A Survey of Women in Public Office," January, 1933 [mimeographed], p. 13) has compiled an extensive list of women in public office. There are 21 women holding relatively important federal offices, 13 of them being presidential appointees confirmed by the Senate. There has not been a woman in the Cabinet, though at the time of writing, February, the press is still suggesting a woman as head of the Department of Labor in the new administration.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF WOMEN REPRESENTATIVES AT DEMOCRATIC AND REPUBLICAN NATIONAL CONVENTIONS

YEAR	REPUBLICAN		DEMOCRATIC	
	Delegates	Alternates	Delegates	Alternates
1920.....	27	129	93	206
1924.....	120	277	199	310
1932.....	88	307	208	270

Eighteen women have been sent to Congress, starting with Miss Jeanette A. Rankin of Montana who took her seat in 1917. In the Seventy-third Congress, to take office March 4, 1933, there will be one woman in the Senate, Mrs. Hattie Caraway, Arkansas, Democrat, appointed to fill the unexpired term of her husband in the Seventy-second Congress and elected to the Seventy-third. In the House there will be Mrs. Mary Norton, Democrat, New Jersey, elected first in November, 1925, and re-elected four times; Mrs. Florence Prag Kahn, Republican, California, elected in 1925 to fill the vacancy left by the death of her husband and re-elected four times; Mrs. Edith Nourse Rogers, Republican, Massachusetts, elected in 1927 at special election to fill the seat of her husband, and re-elected four times; also two newcomers, Miss Kathryn O'Loughlin, Democrat, Kansas, and Mrs. Virginia Jenckes, Democrat, Indiana.

There were 9 women in the Seventy-first Congress, 7 in the Seventy-second. Two women have been in the Senate—1 for just a day, through the chivalrous gesture of a governor; 1 a senator's widow. Of the 16 who have been in the House, 7 were first there because of their husbands, 1 was a daughter filling the unexpired term of her

father, 2 were there more remotely as their father's daughters, and 6 have been definitely elected on their own. From this point of view the make-up in the House today is encouraging—with 3 veteran congresswomen, and 2 independent new members.

There has been a slight falling off in numbers of women members of state legislatures. The Federal Suffrage Amendment became effective in 1920. That year 29 women were in legislatures. In 1925 the first advance came with 128 elected. In 1929 there were 149 women in thirty-eight state legislatures, in 1933 there are 132 women in thirty-four legislatures. Of these 132, 57 have stood successfully for re-election.

This year there is 1 woman governor, Mrs. Ferguson of Texas, 4 elected secretaries of state, a state auditor and state treasurer, and 5 state superintendents of education.

In the appointive offices the greatest number of women are found in state departments of health and welfare, some fourteen states having women in important positions in this field. Miss Frances Perkins and Miss Isabel Larwill head the Labor departments in New York and Michigan, respectively. Minnesota has a woman commissioner of the budget.

Women are becoming more usual in municipal courts, especially as probate and juvenile court judges. Many more women are holding office in counties than in any other unit of government. County superintendent of schools, county treasurer, county clerk, or clerk of the county court, county recorder, and register of deeds are the most popular offices. One of the best-paid women in this field is Miss Martha Byrne, register of New York County, an office carrying $12,000 a year. Another outstanding county official is Miss Ruth Taylor, appointed commissioner of public welfare of Westchester County, New York, at $12,500 a year. Seattle, Washington, is the only large city which has had a woman mayor. Only two towns, both small, have had city managers.

In the legislative field perhaps the most discussed measure has been Section 213 of the Federal Economy Act, the so-called Married Persons Clause, which provides that in case of dismissals from the government service those employees who are married to other government employees shall be dismissed ahead of all others. This

clause has been interpreted adversely to women and has aroused the objection of the Secretary of Labor, the Civil Service Commission, and many women's organizations. The whole economic status of the married woman worker both in public and private employment has grown increasingly precarious.

On December 23, 1932, President Hoover signed an executive order doing away with the prerogative granted under Rule VII of the Civil Service Regulations allowing bureau heads to specify the sex eligible for appointment to fill vacancies. This means there will no longer be two registers. The Commission will now certify eligibles without regard to sex unless the duties of the position to be filled are such as, in the opinion of the Commission, can be performed only by men or women as the case may be.

Opinion differs as to whether this is an advantage to women or not. So long as veterans' preference is permitted, it may result in the women finding themselves somewhat lower down in the register than their real ability warrants.

In 1932 only nine state legislatures were in session and there was little change in state laws affecting women. Massachusetts extended its home work law, and the New York Industrial Board revised its canning code.

The United States Women's Bureau reports that unemployment among women not only is widespread but in certain industries is proportionately greater and increasing more rapidly than in the case of men. Pay cuts have found new low levels in weekly wages, and sweat shop operators in "gypsy" industries are taking advantage of the desperate need of women to exploit them still further.

The National Consumers League has noted this same breaking of standards in the candy industry and others. It is becoming more and more difficult for responsible concerns to maintain standards and yet meet price competition.

This situation is causing a revival of interest in protective labor legislation. In at least twelve states, including Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey, there is an active drive for legislation providing a forty-four-hour week and minimum wage for women and minors.

Women's responsibilities in the home are changing. In 1930 for the first time there were fewer children under five years of age enu-

merated than in the previous census and, further, fewer children under five than between five and ten years of age. Families are smaller —in the professional class 3.01 persons per family; at the largest, among farm owners and renters, 4.48 persons per family. The number of persons in school shows a marked increase. In 1900, 51.5 per cent of those from five to twenty years of age were in school. By 1930 this had increased to 72.6 per cent.

The number of women sixteen years and over gainfully employed increased sixfold in the sixty years since 1870; the female population, fourfold. Between 1900 and 1910, the employed women sixteen years and over increased 47 per cent; female population, 24 per cent. Between 1920 and 1930, employed women increased 29 per cent; the female population, 22 per cent.

In 1900 women were 17.7 per cent of all employed persons; in 1930 this figure had climbed a notch or so each census year to 21.9 per cent. Also, women were older. In 1920, 20.6 per cent of the employed women were less than twenty years of age; in 1930 this figure had fallen to 15.5 per cent.

In 1900, there were 769,000 married women employed, or 5.6 per cent of all married women; in 1930, this figure was 3,071,000 or 11.7 per cent of all married women. Stated in another way, in 1900 married women composed 15 per cent of all working women, in 1930 the corresponding figure was 29 per cent. The number of married women working outside the home increased 60 per cent between 1920 and 1930, while the total number of married women increased 23 per cent, and the number of married women in the urban population increased 34 per cent. The increase of all employed women ten years of age and over was 26 per cent.

Women are found in practically all occupations, the exceptions being those where physical or labor-union limitations debar them, as in such lines of work as smelting, structural iron work, and employment as steam railroad locomotive engineer and fireman, for example. Of course, they are largely congregated in a relatively few occupations, but the fact that there are scouts in all fields gives the individual scope to follow any peculiar interest or opportunity.

In 1930 women comprised 10 per cent or more of all persons employed in each major group of occupations except agriculture, forestry and fishing, extraction of minerals, public service not elsewhere

classified, and transportation and communication. In manufacturing and mechanical industries they were 13.4 per cent of all employed; in trade, 15.8 per cent; in professional service, 46.9 per cent; in clerical occupations, 49.4 per cent; in domestic and personal service, 64.2 per cent.

The percentage increase or decrease in numbers employed between 1920 and 1930 probably gives a better picture than do absolute figures. In agriculture the number of women fell off 16 per cent; in forestry and fishing, 51 per cent; in extraction of minerals, 74 per cent. While the number of men likewise decreased in these three fields it was to a much lesser extent.

In manufacturing and mechanical industries the number of males increased 12 per cent; number of females decreased 2 per cent. The decline for women was chiefly in the non-factory occupations. Dressmakers and seamstresses for example fell off by 33 per cent, tailoresses by 31 per cent. Also, where industries were affected by machinery or change in demand there was a decrease in the number of women employed. Thus women operators in cigar and tobacco factories decreased 19 per cent, in woolen and worsted mills, 20 per cent. On the other hand, women bakers showed an increase of 94 per cent, workers in electrical machinery and supply factories of 65 per cent, operators in chemical and allied industries (including rayon) of 51 per cent.

In transportation and communication and in trade both men and women showed the same relative increase of 25 per cent and 43 per cent, respectively. For the women in trade the occupations showing the most marked increase were real estate agents and officials, 245 per cent; insurance agents, 155 per cent; and wholesale dealers, importers, and exporters, 113 per cent.

The number of men employed in public service in 1930 showed an increase of 15 per cent over 1920, while for women the increase was 66 per cent.

In professional service the number both of men and of women increased 50 per cent in 1930 over 1920. For the women the notable increases were trained nurses 101 per cent; librarians 100 per cent; college presidents and professors 100 per cent; authors, editors, and reporters 99 per cent; lawyers, judges and justices 95 per cent. There was a decline in the number of women dentists, draftsmen, and phy-

sicians and surgeons, while the number of men in these professions increased.

Men teachers increased in number 65 per cent between 1920 and 1930; women teachers, 35 per cent. This no doubt is indicative of the change in salary scale since the war, and if a 1933 census were taken the trend would be more emphasized. However, while men teachers formed 13 per cent of all men in the professional group, of the women in professional work 72 per cent were teachers. Their tendency to concentrate in a few lines is well known.

In domestic and personal service the number of men employed in 1930 was 49 per cent greater than in 1920, the number of women 45 per cent greater. The marked increase was among women barbers, hairdressers, and manicurists, 240 per cent; cleaning, dyeing, and pressing shop workers, 373 per cent; restaurant, cafe, and lunchroom keepers, 156 per cent; laundry operators, 99 per cent; waitresses, 98 per cent. As in non-factory manufacturing occupations so laundresses not in laundries showed a decline of 8 per cent.

Women showed a definite increase in clerical occupations of 40 per cent, while men increased in number 21 per cent.

Things had looked very promising for women in 1929. The number holding political office was growing. Here and there recognition in international affairs had come to some women. Practically all educational doors were open. The alumnae of the women's colleges were discussing schools of business and pointing to the successes of their sisters even in Wall Street. Women were listed as heavy taxpayers and as holders of an increasing share of the wealth of the country.

In brief, women were just, in a way, catching up with a great social lag inaugurated when the factory took their work out of their homes, and public opinion only haltingly and grudgingly allowed them to go out after it. They followed the men fairly closely, and who would not expect them to do so? But they never became an integral part of the inner center of financial control and conservatism. Is it possible that they will break through the remaining entanglements of laissez faire and rugged individualism and, enlarging their conception of family solidity, break the trail toward a new economic system which recognizes the economic fact of collectivism as the corollary of the machine?

PENOLOGY AND CRIME

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ABSTRACT

Despite curtailments due to the depression, several developments have taken place: in the field of penology along the lines of classification, new types of detention (with recognition of the value of minimum security confinement), education (with emphasis upon individual treatment), and prison labor; in police work along the lines of departmental reorganization for greater efficiency, regional police organization, use of radio and scientific crime detection, and prevention. Increased attention has been given to statistics of crime. The committee to study Ohio Judicial Statistics issued several reports in 1932.

Although the depression and the unusually large crop of new political officeholders have increased the clamor for trimming off the "scientific frills" in treatment of criminals, several developments have taken place in classification and institutionalization. The riots of recent years, attention given to the brutality of police and others, better knowledge of the nature of criminal behavior, and the necessity for economy have forced attention to this problem as well as to questions of police organization. Statistics of crime and criminals show improvement, and reports of the Ohio committees are of great value. Statistics fail to reveal any great increase in crime with the advancement of the depression.[1]

PENOLOGY

Although the staffs of many agencies have been reduced and certain positions such as the warden's assistants in the federal prisons have not been filled in response to efforts at curtailment, several penal programs under way before the depression became severe have been carried out. Interest in this field lies along the lines of classification, new types of detention, education, and prison labor.

Classification.—Penologists have long advocated diagnosis and classification of criminals in order to determine suitable corrective treatment. Recently several experiments have been inaugurated

[1] It is regretted that there was not adequate space to mention a number of the significant criminal statutes for 1932. However, Professor J. P. Chamberlain, of Columbia University, who kindly loaned his digests, has an excellent article on the subject in the *American Bar Association Journal* for March, 1933.

and some are sufficiently far advanced to permit tentative evaluation. One of the oldest is the Massachusetts Briggs Law (1921), which provides that defendants in capital cases and all felony recidivists shall submit to mental examinations before trial. The examinations, conducted by the State Department of Mental Disease, increased from a very few in the early years to 654 in 1930. Courts, prosecutors, and defense attorneys have embraced the service as a means of eliminating partisan expert testimony and of securing truer justice for the mentally abnormal.

The New Jersey prison classification system obtains a clinical picture based on mental and physical examinations and a social history and charts the progress of each inmate. Following the diagnosis, 40 per cent of the prison population is placed on the Leesburg farm. Working at outside labor without armed guards, the prisoners respond well and earn 70 per cent of the cost of keeping them. The expense of housing declined from about $5,000 to about $1,000 per man.

In December, 1931, a psychiatric clinic was opened in connection with the New York City criminal courts so that every prisoner can be examined before sentence, enabling the judge to decide on probation, hospitalization, or prison commitment.

A few years ago most federal prisoners were in prisons and local jails. In May, 1932, some 13,500 were in institutions (other than local jails), one-third in minimum or medium security type. There were 3,200 on parole as against 660 in 1929 and 20,200 on probation as opposed to 3,200 in 1929.

Institutions and camps.—Federal prison camps have proved successful in effecting rehabilitation, in cost of operation, and from the point of view of escapes. They now house 15 per cent of all federal prisoners. Outstanding is the new camp at Fort Eustis, Virginia, where 600 men are engaged in reforestation and reclamation. During the summer the Northeastern Penitentiary at Lewisburg, Pennsylvania, was opened for a population of not over 1,500. Chief industries will be farming and metal-furniture-making. Officers are specially trained social workers, and a thirty-day quarantine period is used for mental and physical examinations. Confinement runs the scale from isolation cells to honor dormitories.

A decided advance in jail construction exists in the new skyscraper (sixteen stories) House of Detention for Women in New York City. Built of terra cotta with no outside bars, it resembles an apartment hotel. Striking features are colored clothing and individual rooms with beds instead of bunks, following the women's division of the Detroit House of Correction. Six floors are occupied by the hospital. Another institution for women was opened in California embodying most modern prison features, including medium security cottages apart from the central plant.

Late in 1931 the New York State Training School for Boys, aged twelve to sixteen, was opened for operation along the lines of a private school. Legislation in that state calls for a state vocational institution for boys sixteen to nineteen years of age as well as for a new institution for mentally defective delinquents.

The trend toward scientific treatment and more humane methods is being extended to southern chain gangs and prison camps. The Florida sweat-box killing and the Burns case in Georgia will doubtless hasten the movement. Similar exposés in North Carolina resulted in placing all prisoners sentenced for over sixty days in concentration camps under state control. A new prison with adequate work facilities is planned.

Education and labor.—The Hawes-Cooper Act prohibiting interstate commerce in prison-made goods goes into effect next year in the several states that have adopted appropriate legislation. Prospect of curtailed markets with the growing realization that prison work helps defray expenses and aids in treatment is forcing attention to the development of new industries. Yet several groups, including the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the American Federation of Labor, as well as organizations of manufacturers and retailers, are urging states to prohibit all save state-use programs.

Vocational training that will permit a man to employ his skill after release has been inaugurated in Sing Sing and Clinton prisons. Instruction is given in plumbing, steam-fitting, painting, baking, electricity, auto mechanics, stenography, and bookkeeping.

Plans are well under way for an educational demonstration in another New York prison for adults. Based largely on individual treatment as preparation for release, a large part of the program will be in the hands of teachers from outside schools.

POLICE

Changes in police work are noticed in at least four directions: departmental reorganization in response to demands for greater efficiency; regional police; acceptance of radio and scientific crime detection; and prevention.

Reorganization.—Perhaps the most outstanding example of reorganization is that of the Chicago Police Department, which, although the depression has reduced it from 6,700 to 6,000 men, is accomplishing more work and has doubled the number of uniformed patrolmen on street duty. Following the survey by the Citizens' Police Committee, Bruce Smith was retained to effect a number of changes. Through greater efficiency in the use of motors, stations, special assignments, etc., a saving of nearly one million dollars has been effected. Steps have been taken toward eliminating undesirable personnel and permitting only intelligent men to advance.

Broadcasting crime reports to patrol cars with the incidental changes in methods increased rapidly during 1932. In June of that year there were either in operation or under construction ninety-two licensed stations in fifty cities serving thirty-two million people. New York City commenced operation in 1932 with two hundred and twenty receiver-equipped cars.

Regional police organization.—Proposals for administering municipal police work over regional areas were advocated anew last year, and there began to appear a conception of some of the implications involved. The Cincinnati Metropolitan District, comprising 147 separate police agencies in seven Ohio and Kentucky counties, engaged Bruce Smith to make plans for a regional police system. A New Jersey commission making a similar study has recommended state control and local reorganization.

State police systems are growing in number although observation of their work as it overlaps that of local police has brought certain problems to the fore. Professional jealousy of officers working under separate autonomies calls for a new conception of rôle. The new development points also to the decay of the office of county sheriff.

Scientific crime detection and training schools.—Perhaps largely through the pioneering of August Vollmer, the efforts of the Scientific Crime Detection Laboratory (now part of Northwestern Uni-

versity), and the realization of the police that they must give better account of themselves, the use of training schools and scientific methods expanded in 1932. The laboratory at Northwestern University was employed in 286 cases in 21 states last year. It is equipped for 45 different acivities connected with studying the tangible traces of crime.[2] The laboratory conducts a police school with a course in detection.

Before the depression New York had twenty-three municipal schools and one operated by state troopers. In 1932 only twelve were in operation, but the enrolment outside of New York City was two thousand, of which number 95 per cent received completion certificates. During the year, the University of Pittsburgh offered to conduct a police school and crime-detection laboratory provided the city would bear the expense.

With the continued use of the lie detector in private business and in many criminal cases, and with the development of drugs such as scopolamine and sodium amytol, which permit the memory to operate but prevent reasoning, it is expected that use of third-degree methods will become increasingly difficult to justify.[3] Another attack on this form of police brutality is the advocation of the removal of the right of an accused person to refuse to explain suspicious circumstances which now constitutes the chief defense for the practice.

Crime prevention.—The year brought continued demands that police recognize the importance of crime prevention, and in some instances police leaders have indicated the necessity of borrowing the point of view and technique of social workers. In 1931 the program advocated years earlier by Commissioner Woods was inaugurated in New York City. The prevention bureau with a personnel of 212 dealt with 9,800 cases making only 250 arrests, and conducted sports contests for adolescent boys. While it is doubtful whether police should duplicate the work of playgrounds and other agencies,

[2] Listed in the *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology* for March, 1932, and described in a series of articles in *Hygeia*, appearing from February to November, 1932.

[3] In 1932 the Crime Detection Laboratory used the polygraph on 665 individuals in 93 cases and secured 53 confessions. During the year the American Prison Association strongly condemned the third degree and recognized the lie detector as a substitute. In December, 1932, Lloyds Insurance Company decided to grant certain banks a 10 per cent discount on theft insurance provided their entire staffs were tested on the polygraph.

as the latter activity indicates, there is certainly room for co-ordination of effort.

STATISTICS

For five successive years it has been stated in this annual report of changes in crime that the statistics available to the criminologist are inadequate save for extremely limited use. Nevertheless, the recent attention given by the Bureau of the Census to statistics of prisoners promises a series of annual reports that will show general trends in at least the size and movement of the prison population. The Bureau of Identification is more critical of its data on crimes reported. The committee to study Ohio Judicial Statistics issued several reports in 1932.

TABLE I*

PRISONERS IN STATE AND FEDERAL PRISONS AND REFORMATORIES, 1923–32

Institutions	1923	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932
	A. Number Present on January 1							
State†	72,474	80,122	85,955	92,943	100,242	106,739	114,858	122,859
Federal	4,664	6,430	6,803	7,722	8,233	12,964	12,181	12,963
	B. Ratio per 100,000 of General Population‡							
State	68.3	74.4	78.7	83.8	89.1	94.0	100.1	106.3
Federal	4.2	5.5	5.7	6.4	6.8	10.6	9.8	10.4

* Data for 1926–30 from *U.S. Census Prisoners in State and Federal Prisons and Reformatories, 1929–1930*, Table V, pp. 8–9; for 1931 from *U.S. Daily*, May 28, 1932; for 1932 from advance releases furnished by the Bureau of the Census; for 1923 from *Prisoners, 1923*, Table CXXVIII, p. 194. Statistics for 1923 are for January through June only. Population figures for intercensal years are from U.S. Census estimates based on 1920 and 1930 data; for 1931 and 1932, computed arithmetically.

† Exclusive of Alabama, Delaware, the District of Columbia, Georgia, Idaho, Mississippi, and Vermont, which did not report every year.

‡ Rates for federal prisoners based on total population, for state prisoners on total population without that of states for which data on prisoners were incomplete.

Statistics of Prisoners.—The census of inmates of state and federal prisons and reformatories is an index neither of crime nor of the treatment of any specified proportion of criminals, but it does give some notion of the importance of this group of state wards. Table I shows the ratio of prisoners to the general population in these institutions from 1923 to 1932. The ratios for the state institutions show increases over the last eight years of approximately equal amounts. The ratio of federal prisoners to the population increased irregularly.

Prisoners received from courts into state institutions, indicating the annual number of criminals punished by major confinement, are

shown in proportion to population by geographic divisions (Table II). In every division the trend is upward, and among fifty-four successive ratios only twelve are lower than the ratios for preceding years. In 1930 the ratio in only one division was lower than in 1929 and in 1931 only two were lower than in 1930.

Table II reveals the further interesting point that the rates for the states of the industrial Northeast (New England and Middle Atlan-

TABLE II*

PRISONERS RECEIVED FROM COURTS IN STATE PRISONS AND REFORMATORIES PER 100,000 OF GENERAL POPULATION, 1923–31

DIVISIONS	NUMBER PER 100,000 BY YEARS						
	1923	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
United States	35.1	38.2	40.8	42.3	43.3	48.3	51.6
New England†	20.7	22.1	20.9	24.6	23.1	27.6	27.2
Middle Atlantic	20.9	24.2	23.8	24.5	25.3	28.6	30.8
East North Central	49.7	42.5	46.5	44.7	48.0	53.5	50.0
West North Central	31.9	41.1	42.9	44.4	44.2	49.0	53.1
South Atlantic‡	29.8	47.3	53.6	58.3	59.3	68.9	75.0
East South Central§	43.8	43.0	44.3	57.0	59.2	71.1	78.2
West South Central	42.2	47.2	54.8	52.9	53.5	58.2	71.0
Mountains‖	52.2	60.3	63.0	66.2	71.8	73.9	81.6
Pacific	42.1	41.6	42.8	47.1	44.1	43.7	48.2

* See Table I, n. *.

† Except Vermont.

‡ Except Delaware, the District of Columbia, and Georgia.

§ Except Alabama and Mississippi.

‖ Except Idaho.

tic) are distinctly lower than for the remainder of the country. But it is not to be inferred that the incidence of crime is lower in these states. Rather it is recalled that Massachusetts and New York, largest states in the divisions, have led the nation in use of probation and commitment of felons to institutions for defectives.

A final table shows movement into and out of state and federal prisons and compares the major types of release. The data in Table III indicate a growing tendency for annual discharges to equal admissions. Similarly, release on parole is increasing more rapidly than expiration of sentence.

The statistics in these tables are interesting in the light of popular conceptions of the relation between crime and business activity. While commitments shown in Tables I and II have increased recently, the change is little, if any, greater than in previous years and any

excess may easily have been due to the expansion of facilities. And although release, particularly parole, is supposed to be more difficult to obtain when employment is scarce, the ratio of discharges to admissions and the proportion released on parole increased during the first two years of the depression.

TABLE III*

MOVEMENT OF POPULATION OF STATE AND FEDERAL PRISONS AND REFORMATORIES, 1926–31

Item	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Received from courts	47,000	51,936	55,746	58,906	66,013	70,966
Discharged†	44,964	47,566	52,644	53,066	61,653	68,385
Ratio discharged to received	95.7	91.6	94.4	90.0	93.4	96.4
Discharged—expiration of sentence	17,831	18,455	20,475	21,192	24,876	25,367
Discharged—paroled	19,917	21,652	22,551	24,138	29,509	34,745
Ratio paroled to expired	1.12	1.17	1.10	1.14	1.19	1.37

* Data for 1926 from *Prisoners in State and Federal Prisons and Reformatories, 1926*, Table I, p. 3; for 1927–30 from Table I, p. 3, in similar reports for years indicated; for 1931 from *United States Daily*, May 28, 1932. Exclusive of Alabama, Georgia, Idaho, and Mississippi.

† Includes: sentence expired, paroled, pardoned, otherwise released, executed, died, escaped, and method of release not reported.

Offenses known to police.—Were reporting widespread, adequate, and honest, the number of offenses known to police would constitute a true index of crime. *Uniform Crime Reports*, now issued by the Bureau of Identification in the form of quarterly bulletins,[4] presented a number of interesting comparisons during 1932. Table IV, reproduced from the *Fourth Quarterly Bulletin*, shows the average daily number of offenses, during the years 1931 and 1932 in seventy cities of over 100,000 population (total population, 18,860,000). If one were attempting to make out a case for increase in crime during a depression, these figures would be most unsatisfactory, for burglary alone shows a significant increase. Auto theft decreased while the six remaining categories changed little. Tables XIII and XIV of the same report show that in 689 cities the daily average of robbery offenses increased from 96.6 in 1930 to 115.6 in 1932 and that burglary increased from 265.0 to 368.0 over the same period.

[4] In 1932 the Bureau discontinued the practice of publishing unverified statistics for individual cities and substituted reports for places grouped according to size. Attempts were made to have inconsistencies corrected at the source, and other efforts were directed toward giving these reports greater value.

Another table in this bulletin presents 1932 crime rates by size of cities. With little exception, incidence of all eight offenses (see Table IV) decreases as the size of the places declines from 100,000 population to the smallest groups.

TABLE IV

TOTAL AND DAILY AVERAGE NUMBER OF OFFENSES REPORTED TO POLICE IN 70 CITIES, 1931 AND 1932

ITEM	FELONIOUS HOMICIDES		RAPE	ROBBERY	AGGRAVATED ASSAULT	BURGLARY	LARCENY	AUTO THEFT
	Murder and Non-negligent Manslaughter	Manslaughter by Negligence						
Offenses known, 1931...	1,437	1,362	1,156	18,714	9,777	67,003	148,333	85,605
Offenses known, 1932...	1,477	1,090	1,223	18,106	8,752	73,845	150,472	72,325
Daily average, 1931.....	3.9	3.7	3.2	51.3	26.8	183.6	406.4	234.5
Daily average, 1932.....	4.0	3.0	3.3	49.5	23.9	201.8	411.1	197.6

Other programs.—The Bureau of the Census through the work of Dr. Thorsten Sellin and Dr. Leon Truesdell is endeavoring to enhance the value of the annual census of prisoners through elimination of unimportant data and inclusion of new items. Parole statistics are promised for the near future. Dr. Sellin is also chairman of the new American Statistical Association Committee on Statistics of Delinquents and Criminals.

The year 1932 witnessed the appearance of several new volumes from The Institute of Law and The Ohio Institute, among the most important of which are: *Ohio Criminal Statistics, 1931, Comparative Judicial Criminal Statistics: Ohio and Maryland,* and *Comparative Judicial Criminal Statistics: Six States.* Based on a uniform system already adopted in Ohio, these reports trace defendants through the hands of the police, the courts, and the institutions. These reports not only demonstrate that uniform classification is possible, but, perhaps even more significantly, how simple it is with adequate data to correct widespread misconceptions relating to various aspects of court practice and to show how glaring are defects in present organization. They prove beyond question the value of criminal statistics. The Johns Hopkins Press offers a bibliography of thirty-six new titles in this field.

ORGANIZED RELIGION

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ABSTRACT

For the majority of religious institutions for whom data are available, the year was one of declining income and of increasing relief efforts. Church membership continued to gain slightly. A National Seminar of Catholics, Jews, and Protestants was held. In the realm of ideas and attitudes there is much evidence of ferment and reconstruction particularly among non-Catholic bodies. There were only rumblings of religious strife during the national election campaign, as contrasted with 1928. The economic crisis seems to be breeding a theology of crisis. The report of the Laymen's Foreign Missions Inquiry was published. The President's Research Committee on Social Trends, reporting on trends within organized religion between 1910 and 1930, disclosed marked expansion of services and more noticeable gains in financial resources than in membership.

STATISTICS OF MEMBERSHIP

The most recent and comprehensive reports of the membership of all churches in the United States are for the year 1931. As compiled by and published in the *Christian Herald*, New York, for June, 1932, they indicated a total membership of 47,365,187 persons thirteen years of age and over for the 35 largest religious bodies in the United States. The other 170 religious bodies reported a total of 2,208,713 adult members. The total figure was stated to be an increase of 433,656 members over that for the year 1930. It should be noted, however, that the compilation for 1931 contained reports from certain bodies having 111,949 members for the first time. Making allowance for these figures, the net increase was one of 0.7 per cent, a slightly larger rate of gain than that of the previous year. It is believed by some statisticians that the figures for the 35 leading bodies in the United States may be regarded as fairly decisive.

A study by H. C. Weber, the editor of the *Yearbook of the American Churches* (New York: Round Table Press, 1933), indicates that during the post-war period gains of membership on the part of the churches varied inversely with improvement in business. In other words, during the post-war period the most rapid gains of church membership took place during years of business recession, and during periods of prosperity the rate of gain was much lower. In the present unfavorable economic conditions there is discussion as to whether adversity will be accompanied by a "revival of religion"

such as has apparently been the case in other periods of our history. Thus far there appears to be little evidence of such development.

RELIEF EFFORTS

Although 70 per cent of the funds expended for unemployment relief, of which there is record, come from governmental sources, it is known that much relief work never gets into the public reports of any kind or description. The informal work of the churches among their own members is well known. In several states clergymen have been leaders in organization of mutual exchanges among the unemployed (see *Information Service*, Federal Council of Churches, New York, January 28, 1933). Here and there, churches have opened workshops. Many have expanded their recreation facilities.

Furthermore, there is considerable evidence that many churchmen believe that "relief is not enough" in the present situation. For example, among leading Catholic laymen in New York City a "crusade for social justice" was begun during 1932. Throughout the entire Catholic world the problems of the unfavorable year brought forth numerous lay study groups and pronouncements by laymen and clergy on social, industrial, and economic questions. A special committee of the Department of Research and Education of the Federal Council of Churches issued a study course entitled "Our Economic Life in the Light of Christian Ideals," published by the Association Press, New York. This study course, prepared for the use of groups within the churches and the Christian associations, outlines characteristics of our economic system and outstanding elements of the present economic crisis, concluding with a discussion of the relation of economic planning to the Christian ethic. The Central Conference of American Rabbis issued, during the year, one of the most radical statements yet made by any church body on the present economic situation and the requirements of social justice. It called for much more adequate governmental relief than has thus far been made available and for drastic reorganization of economic processes in the interest of social justice.

THE NATIONAL SEMINAR OF JEWS, CATHOLICS, AND PROTESTANTS

In March, 1932, the National Conference of Jews and Christians, New York, held in Washington, D.C., the first national seminar of

individuals among Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish groups in the United States. The seminar was unofficial and not a representative body. A total of 475 persons registered. About half of these were Protestants and the other half were about equally divided into Catholics and Jews. The seminar considered critically the various educational methods which have been used in the improvement of intergroup relations. It discussed the possibilities of co-operative social action on the part of the members of each of the three groups in the typical community. The seminar did not wrestle with some of the most important conflicts between these groups such as public policy in regard to the dissemination of information in regard to birth control or policies in regard to mixed marriages. Numerous local seminars of members of the three groups have been held in cities and universities. In a few instances, for example St. Louis, Missouri, and Syracuse, New York, permanent interfaith committees have been established in order to deal with issues of social justice as they arise.

IDEAS AND ATTITUDES

Trends of thought or significant changes in thought do not arise within any period of twelve months. The year 1932 continued to be one of active discussion of numerous controversies agitating religious groups. One of these questions is birth control. The general session of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, meeting at Indianapolis in December, declined to take action favoring certain changes in the federal laws. Among non-Catholic groups there is once more a lively discussion of certain theological questions. A time of drastic economic readjustment seems to be marked by the growth of ideas of supernaturalism and of distrust of liberal theology.

The economic crisis seems to be breeding a theology of crisis. Observers report that the theology of crisis current in Europe for a number of years is now coming to have steadily increasing attention, within Protestantism at least. This is the case in spite of the fact that there seems to be more evidence of the resolution of the conflicts between religion and science. Another development, which should be considered along with that of a more dogmatic religious ideology, is the spread of a movement called the First Century Christian Fellowship, known in England as the Oxford group. The movement

is commonly referred to as Buchmanism, being named after its chief leader. Buchmanism has been spreading in certain areas by means of an emphasis upon confession to others, the sharing of experience, and "witnessing."

At the annual meeting of the American Sociological Society, Rabbi Marvin Nathan of Philadelphia presented a paper summarizing his studies of the attitudes of Jewish students in colleges and universities toward Judaism. This study, carried on over a period of several years, among individuals attending fifty-seven universities, indicated that cultural changes are being accompanied by, or are resulting in, numerous changes in ideology among Jewish university students. Data from 1,500 students, gathered by means of correspondence, personal conferences, and group discussions, indicated that about two-thirds of the students have broken away from the personal concept of God, are troubled by intellectual difficulties, or reject the customs and practices of Judaism. There is evidence, Rabbi Nathan states, that these changes in ideology have begun in the high school.

LAYMEN'S FOREIGN MISSIONS INQUIRY

In November the Commission of Appraisal of the Laymen's Foreign Missions Inquiry made public its report summarizing a study, carried on over a period of three years, of foreign missions as conducted in China, Japan, and India by seven large Protestant bodies. The study was made to consider some of the critical situations in the foreign missions enterprise. It went into the purposes of missions, their bases of support, and their methods of work. The Inquiry was directed by thirty-five lay persons unofficially representing the seven denominations, although the work was entirely voluntary and unofficial. The Commission said that missions should continue but that far-reaching changes were obviously needed. The Commission proposed, for example, a single unit of administration, a more rapid transfer of work to native responsibility, and more concentration of effort, better-trained and better-equipped missionaries, increasing co-operation with non-Christian faiths. The report, published by Harper and Brothers, New York, under the title of *Rethinking Missions*, received widespread publicity and editorial comment in the

newspapers of the entire nation. Some of its recommendations, as well as some of the ideas expressed in regard to the purposes of missions, aroused considerable discussion, which revealed plainly the varieties of religious philosophy within Protestantism. The Commission of Appraisal, in general, recommended what has been called the "free fellowship" type of missions as over against the strictly evangelical or the Catholic types. At this writing, only preliminary consideration has been given to the report by the boards and societies administering the programs of work which were studied. The report has been spoken of as a significant document, and its study is being recommended. On the other hand, various exceptions are noted. Some of these exceptions are on theological grounds. One board specifically stated that it could not take the position of looking forward to the continued coexistence of other religions and that it did not regard sharing with other religions as one of the main purposes of foreign missions.

OTHER EVENTS AND DEVELOPMENTS

Although 1932 was a presidential year, there were only rumblings of religious strife as contrasted with the events of 1928. Numerous observers report that Protestantism is less active, less resolute, in its support of prohibition. A new statement of social ideals of the Protestant churches was adopted by the Federal Council at its meeting in Indianapolis. This declared that "the churches should stand for social planning and control of credit and monetary systems. Subordination of speculation and the profit motive to the creative and cooperative spirit. Encouragement of cooperatives and other organizations among farmers and other groups. Repudiation of war."

A national conference on the general theme of "The Church in the City in the Present Crisis" declared in favor of increasing adult education on the part of the churches, particularly on economic and social matters. All evidence indicates that the radio is still being increasingly used for the broadcasting of religious services, by all faiths. The general conference of the Methodist Episcopal church, meeting in Atlantic City, took action abolishing racial discrimination in any arrangements for subsequent conferences.

In addition to the Catholic events discussed previously under "Relief Efforts," others outstanding, mentioned by Catholic scholars, are the issuance of three encyclicals by the pope. One of these was on the topic of "World Distress" and asked "men of good will to unite in a crusade of love and succor." Another dealt with the relations of church and state in Mexico. There continues to be extensive study and consideration of the encyclical of the year 1931 officially entitled "Quadragesimo Anno," better known under the popular title of "Reconstructing the Social Order," issued on the occasion of the fortieth anniversary of the historic encyclical by Pope Leo XIII under the popular title "On the Condition of Labor." The *Directory of Catholic Schools and Colleges* (Washington) reported a gain of 2 per cent in the number of religious schools as compared with 1931 and a gain of 2.4 per cent in the total number of students. Among the Jewish group domestic relief has become so overwhelming that relief efforts on behalf of groups in less favored parts of the world were considerably decreased. Jewish charity organizations everywhere have had to stress relief so much that various forms of preventive work have been neglected. The problem of discrimination in employment still concerns the Jewish community and particularly makes for distress in a year of mass unemployment.

There are reports that Jewish synagogues of all types are being drawn closer together by the depression and by problems of heavy debt and reduced income. There is considerable unemployment among the Jewish clergy (also within Protestantism). One scholar reports that "preoccupation with immediate domestic problems seems to have caused a waning of interest in what are considered to be more remote problems such as world peace." Another scholar reports that rabbis are having increased appeals for personal assistance to individuals in mental and social difficulties largely due to the economic depression. Within the other large religious bodies there is the same kind of testimony in regard to an increase in pastoral functions.

LONG-TIME TRENDS

The report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends, published in 1933 in two volumes by the McGraw-Hill Book Company, entitled *Recent Social Trends in the United States*,

contains significant data in regard to long-time trends of religious organizations in the United States. Chapter xx, entitled "Changes in Religious Organizations," by C. Luther Fry, with the assistance of Mary Frost Jessup, deals with religious agencies in both urban and rural areas. It was found that between 1910 and 1930 organized religious agencies had decidedly expanded both at home and abroad "even though in ideas and beliefs the period had been one of extreme unrest." Over these twenty years, organized religion had expanded far more impressively in wealth than in membership. "Until very recently, membership has increased throughout the country at approximately the same rate as the population." It is pointed out that there has been a widespread development of both denominational and interdenominational agencies that provide recreational facilities for young people. There is evidence that there has been a decided increase in co-operation among Protestant church bodies.

It would appear that "churchmen have found it increasingly necessary to square their teachings with the findings of scientific inquiry." There is an increasing competition between religious agencies of all sorts and various other agencies, including those for recreation. Rigid attitudes toward strict Sabbath observance in the United States have changed decidedly. There appears to be, among church bodies, an increasing interest in the family and in birth control.

"Relatively few denominations have a national distribution." The value of church edifices in the United States was reported to be $1,258,000,000 in 1906, $1,677,000,000 in 1916, and $3,840,000,000 in 1926, according to the federal religious censuses for those years. Data for thirty-four important Protestant denominations indicated that their contributions as measured in purchasing power were larger in 1930 than in 1926, although there were no great variations between these years. There has been an expansion in two new types of church schools—the vacation school and the week-day school. There appeared to be more Bible reading in the public schools in 1930 than there was in 1900. The statement is made that religious agencies were maintaining in 1930 more schools, hospitals, and the like than at any previous time. Radio broadcasting of religious services was increasing rapidly.

Chapter x, entitled "Rural Life," prepared by J. H. Kolb and Edmund de S. Brunner, contains important data in regard to the churches located in villages having up to 2,500 population and in the open country. A study of representative villages indicated that in the rural communities

> churches are the most numerous of all the social organizations and institutions. Their total building investment and their income exceed all other types combined, except the school, which they rival when they do not exceed it. They employ more people than any other social agency except the school, and they receive several times as much in contributions as all other social agencies combined. The rural church, however, has changed less than almost any other rural institution in the last decade. Churches are slightly fewer in number and larger in membership, but a smaller proportion of the population is enrolled in that membership. Buildings are better, but budgets, programs and quality of leadership have changed very little. There is a trend for open country members to join churches in villages.

Rural clergymen seem to have slightly better training, measured in terms of college and seminary attendance, than was the case a decade previous to the study. Salaries of rural clergymen increased rather sharply between 1920 and 1925 but declined between 1925 and 1930.

RACE RELATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The depression has apparently had little influence on race relations during the year. Two events of significance are the Massie case and the report by the Appraisal Commission of the Laymen's Foreign Mission Inquiry. Negro-white relations have manifested the normal state of unrest. The movement to restrict immigration has continued, with decrease of immigration by about 76 per cent during the year. Deportations have continued in greater number than ever before. The situation of the Indian has remained unchanged. Two publications of importance are Professor T. J. Woofter's chapter on "The Status of Racial and Ethnic Groups" in *Recent Social Trends* and Professor Donald Young's volume on *American Minority Peoples*.

Relations between the various population groups of the United States have changed little during the last year. That the difficulties of the economic situation had had few effects on this aspect of American life was remarked in considering race relations in 1931, and as far as can be seen, this observation is still valid; the continuance of the depression seems to have affected all racial groups in much the same manner and to much the same degree. Friction arising between them because of the economic stresses cannot be discerned, since the situation has apparently neither increased nor decreased the conflicts between population groups. It may well be that prejudices held by minority groups against one another have been alleviated to some small degree by the depression, since all economic underprivileged groups have shared suffering together. However, no overt incidents that either support or refute this statement are to be recorded.

Two happenings of the year, both of unusual character, may be noted at the outset. The first of these marks the manifestation of active race prejudice outside the boundaries of continental United States. I refer to the Massie case, which emphasized the conflict that has grown up between the white members of the naval colony in Hawaii and, to a certain degree, those Hawaiians who are of continental American origin, on the one hand, and the remaining majority of the Hawaiian population, which is composed of Chinese, Japanese, Filipinos, and other colored types, on the other. The imme-

diate occasion for the disturbance, the alleged violation of the wife of Lieutenant Massie of the United States Navy and failure to convict the three native Hawaiians of non-American stock accused of the crime, is too well known to necessitate retelling here, nor need the action of Lieutenant Massie, his mother-in-law, and two of his subordinates in the navy, who took the law in their own hands, be detailed. It was the dramatic nature of the original offense and the manner in which vengeance was taken, the fact that Mrs. Massie's mother was a woman socially prominent in the United States and that Clarence Darrow undertook the defense, which operated to make this case a *cause célèbre*. Lieutenant Massie and his co-defendants, it will be recalled, were found guilty of murder, but their sentences were commuted by Governor Judd. This case is not mentioned here because it is, of itself, worthy of note. It is because it constitutes a significant indication of one trend in race feeling that makes it impossible to ignore it. The comments made in Congress, in the state legislatures, and by various organizations concerning race relations in Hawaii which this case dramatized are revealing in the extreme. They demonstrate how the American shares with other peoples of European descent the stereotype of white superiority, with its accompanying emotional reaction when this is challenged.

The second matter relates to the report issued by the Appraisal Commission of the Laymen's Foreign Mission Inquiry on the results of missionary activity in the Far East. This Commission, headed by Professor William E. Hocking of Harvard University, and composed of distinguished representatives of seven Protestant denominations, released its report in instalments between October and December, 1932, and in it assessed the personnel, aims, attitudes, and achievements of missionary work in the Far East. It is not within the purview of this discussion to ask whether or not missions fulfil their aims. That one finds a critical note in the report toward the attitudes of missionaries regarding those to whom they have been sent to enlighten is, however, not unimportant in a consideration of the race attitudes of Americans. The report has stimulated a considerable amount of controversy, not the least quoted of which have been the remarks of the novelist, Mrs. Pearl Buck, who, long a resident of

China, has joined in the attack on the attitude of missionaries toward the racially different peoples among whom they work. These gestures of humility toward the cultures of the Far East, and toward the peoples who have erected these cultures, constitute from a long-term point of view an arresting phase of the year's developments.

When we turn to Negro-white relations the normal state of unrest is to be observed. In the *New York Times* of January 1, 1933, Dr. R. R. Moton, principal of the Tuskegee Institute, published his annual survey of lynching. For 1932 he found that eight persons had been lynched. This was five less than the number lynched in 1931, thirteen less than the number for 1930, two less than that for 1929, three less than that for 1928, and eight less than that for 1927. The analysis of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People gave a somewhat greater number of cases, the difference being the result of a difference in classification of instances of mob-violence resulting in death. This last report records eleven cases. Dr. Moton states that thirty-one times during the year officers of the law prevented lynching; on seven of these occasions armed force was used. A total of forty-two persons, seven whites and thirty-five Negroes, were thus saved from death at the hands of mobs. Two of the eight persons lynched, according to Dr. Moton, were white, and six were Negro.

The Scotsboro case, mentioned in last year's summary, dragged on to inconclusiveness. In April a stay of execution was granted the accused until June. Something over a month later, the United States Supreme Court agreed to review the sentence passed on these men, and, in accordance with the order of the superior body, the Alabama Supreme Court granted a further stay. Arguments were heard before the Supreme Court in October, and a month later new trials were ordered on the ground that the normal safeguards legally due the accused had not been observed. The case, which has become almost as internationally famous as that of Sacco and Vanzetti, has been the cause of untold numbers of demonstrations by workers' groups in foreign countries.

Church policy on racial relations became prominent in the headlines of May, when the general conference of the Methodist Episco-

pal church, in Atlantic City, resolved not to meet in the future where segregation of races would be necessary.

A final item in Negro-white relations which may be mentioned concerns the charges brought by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People that there was grave discrimination by contractors working on the federal Mississippi flood-control project in the pay and treatment of Negroes. President Hoover took official cognizance of the charges and named a board to investigate conditions. If the statements of the Association are correct, it would indicate that the situation of Negroes working on the levees amounts to virtual slavery.

In the summary of race relations of 1931 it was seen how preliminary figures indicated that for the first time immigration would show a net decrease. This was confirmed in the official report, which shows that for the first nine months of the year 46,217 more aliens left the United States than arrived in this country. The total net immigration was 43,353, the emigration was 89,570. A total of 199,964 aliens arrived in this country, but this figure includes both immigrants and non-immigrants—that is, not only settlers, but tourists and other travelers as well. Immigration decreased 75.9 per cent during the year. The decrease from Europe was 78 per cent, from Canada 77 per cent, from Mexico 66 per cent, and all other immigration decreased 63 per cent. In 1932 the movement to restrict immigration continued in the same direction. In a statement released on January 1, 1933, Secretary of Labor Doak said:

> The immigration service of the Department of Labor has carried out through the year its high duty of protecting American labor against the invasion of foreign workers. The smallest number of immigrants in over 100 years gained entry in the fiscal year which ended June 30 last. In that fiscal year only 35,576 aliens were admitted—a drop of 64 per cent from the preceding year's figures of 97,139. It should also be stated that a fair proportion of those admitted were the alien wives and unmarried children under 21 years of age of American citizens.

That the hostility toward a policy of permitting immigration continues is obvious if a few of the measures proposed during the year is recorded. Thus, in January, the Senate Immigration Committee reported favorably on a bill to restrict Mexican immigration to a quota of twenty-five hundred annually. In March, the House Im-

migration Committee approved a 90 per cent decrease in all immigration from the Old World and the Western Hemisphere alike. The only measures to ease the regulations were a bill passed by the Senate and the House in June and signed by President Hoover in July to exempt husbands of United States citizens from quota restrictions, and a move made by the House to admit alien parents of citizens of the United States, provided their support could be assured. Secretary Doak, who has prosecuted the policy of immigration restriction and deportation of aliens with the greatest vigor, made his boldest stroke during the year when he issued a new ruling concerning non-quota students. This ruling, which had to do with the extent to which alien students might support themselves while studying in American universities, was received with a storm of protest. At the present writing, however, nothing has been done concerning it.

In line with attitudes and enactments regarding immigrants may be considered the agitation that is being increasingly carried on and the moves that are being made to compel the registration of aliens. In view of the growing sentiment favoring such registration it should not be surprising if legal sanction is given to the proposal in the near future. Deportations have continued in greater number than ever before. I quote again from Secretary Doak's résumé of the 1932 activities of the Department of Labor:

> The immigration service also was unremitting in its endeavors to deport aliens who were found to be in this country in violation of the immigration laws. The aliens deported during the last fiscal year reached the formidable number of 19,426, the largest number in the history of the department. To this number should be added 10,775 aliens subject to deportation, but who were permitted to depart without the institution of deportation proceedings.

Preliminary reports in January indicated that twenty thousand would be deported during 1932. No official figures for the calendar year are available, but if the record of the fiscal year continues and this figure is reached, it will mean an increase of more than eighteen hundred over deportations during 1931. The bill introduced by Representative Dies, authorizing the deportation of alien communists, is to be noted. This was passed last June by the House and is at present under consideration by the Senate. Similar to it is the

ruling of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals handed down in October that affiliation with the communist party is sufficient grounds for deporting aliens.

The situation of the Indians has remained unchanged. Charges and countercharges concerning the consequences of the reorganization of the Indian Bureau by the appointees of the Hoover administration have been aired, but it is difficult to do more than state that some of the more flagrant abuses seem to have been corrected. In the annual report of Secretary of the Interior Wilbur, the following statement, which shows the policy of the department, is found:

> States must lead Indians into competent citizenship and protect their persons and property. We are not out to capture any more Indians and our aim is to qualify those Indians now under our care, and their children, to take their places in the competitive system that surrounds them. That means the ultimate breaking up of the reserve system and its artificial islands in our civilisation.

Whether or not this approach will be continued under the new administration remains to be seen. The utter demoralization of the Indians in which earlier attempts at forced acculturation have resulted are too well known to need more than mention here; it remains to be seen whether the above policy will further damage or remedy existing conditions.

In the field of publication, the year has been marked by the appearance of two very different works, each of significance for the study of race relations. One of these is the report of the Committee on Social Trends which, on January 1, 1933, released its findings after an extended period of research. The first of the two summary volumes contains Professor Woofter's chapter on "The Status of Racial and Ethnic Groups,"[1] which is to be followed by a more extended monographic treatment at a later date. The other work is that of Professor Donald Young, entitled *American Minority Peoples*.[2]

Woofter summarizes the trends in the racial and ethnic composition of the United States, and in race relations, since 1900, showing

[1] Pp. 553–601. The chapter on "Population," by W. S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton, should also be consulted.

[2] New York: Harper & Bros.

with charts and graphs the manner in which immigration has changed population types, the results of Negro migration both on this element in our population and as it affects other groups, the change in the conditions under which the Indians live. He shows, also, how since 1900 there has been a great increase in Mexican immigration and discusses the distinct changes in the position of the oriental groups in our population. Such matters as the social problems which have arisen from these population changes, the aspects of health and education for each of the groups, the presence of race prejudice, the rise of co-operation between racial groups, particularly Negro and White, and the amount of assimilation of foreigners to the prevalent patterns are all discussed by Woofter. His conclusions stress the fact that the problems of the adjustment of color and racial groups to the patterns of American life and "of adjusting American life to them" remain far from solved. He feels that "While the race contacts have become more extensive in the past decade, friction has probably become less intensive." He notes that the Negro has participated in advances in education and health work, but that, particularly in southern cities, economically there has been loss rather than gain. Finally, he stresses the matter of interracial groups:

> There is the fact that a growing number of organizations are interesting themselves in problems of the adjustment of alien groups. The technique of interracial co-operation is proving of value in securing more satisfactory Negro-white relations. The greatly increased appropriations for the Indian Bureau applied to carrying out the recommendations of a thoroughgoing Indian survey have increased the value of Indian services, and the tendency toward federal, state and county co-operation in Indian problems tends to bring the Indian in closer touch with the white community. A number of organizations for dealing with the immigrant have strengthened their programs and having abandoned the idea of forcing the alien into a "melting pot" have directed their efforts toward assimilation along essential lines and the cultivation of those things in the old world tradition which may enrich American life. The immigrant church, organizations and press have also changed from purely nationalistic agencies to agencies which help in adjustment as well as keep alive old world languages and customs.[3]

Even though Young's book may be considered as dealing with the same problems studied by Woofter, no approach could be more dif-

[3] P. 601.

ferent. In this volume the author is concerned more with the socializing factors at work in racial contacts, and the psychological reactions to the processes of racial conflict and adaptation, than in statistical summaries of what has happened in a given period. The approach of the book is unique in that it stresses the fact that the problems which any minority people face are the problems which all minority peoples must meet.

There have been any number of books written on the Negro, the various immigrant groups, and the Indian, and their status as minorities in this country. A few have discussed more than one minority. The impression conveyed, however, has been in the main that Negro-white relations are one thing, while Jewish-Gentile, Oriental-white, and other race relations are vastly different from each other, even to the extent of kind rather than degree. The view here presented is that the problems and principles of race relations are remarkably similar, regardless of what groups are involved; and that only by an integrated study of all minority peoples in the United States can a real understanding and sociological analysis of the involved social phenomena be achieved.[4]

Young considers such matters as the nature of race prejudice, the movement of peoples, the occupations of the members of minority groups, segregation and assimilation, crossing of physical types, education and church relations, artistic and intellectual achievements of the minority peoples of this country. His summary stands in sharp contrast to Woofter's, for the hopeful tone of Woofter's discussion is here replaced by a series of questions, especially with regard to practical measures of meeting the problems which arise from friction between groups. Holding that visibility, competition, and tradition are the principal factors to be taken into account, Young maintains that associations such as the National Urban League, the Commission on Interracial Co-operation, the Indian Rights Association, the Society for Italian Immigrants, or the Chinese Tongs are rather reflections of a situation than means for changing it. "What have such organizations done to justify their existence?" he asks.

Much in the way of fighting particular instances of atrocious injustice, a little in the way of the dissemination of interracial facts, and nothing so far as any general change in racial attitudes is concerned. All praise should go to the efforts of the interracial pioneers who are sacrificing much for their ideals and who have fought valiantly for the adjustment of interracial relations. Noth-

[4] P. xiii.

ing, however, is to be gained by carrying our confidence in them to the extent of believing that they may do more than battle the symptoms of race prejudice, as a fever may be reduced by the application of ice, affording some relief to the patient but not curing the disease.[5]

It is not within the scope of this discussion to present evidence for or against either position. This much, however, may be indicated: that it would seem not without hope for the scientific analysis of race relations in the United States when studies such as those of Professor Young and Dr. Woofter can so far approach the problems objectively as not to be overcome by their immediacy and by the pressure to devise solutions for them, but rather to regard them as material for objective analysis and non-meliorative consideration.

[5] P. 590.

EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

President Hoover called a citizens' conference on the crisis in American education. The federal Office of Education is seriously crippled as a result of the national economy program. The survey of higher education in California defines the functions of secondary education and university education. The Progressive Education Association secures a relaxation of the requirements for admission to certain colleges. Various agencies prepare materials for instruction in social studies in elementary and secondary schools. France extends free secondary education. A commission of the League of Nations criticizes Chinese imitation of American education. Adult education is extended in various centers to the unemployed.

THE PRESIDENT'S CONFERENCE OF CITIZENS ON THE EDUCATIONAL CRISIS

President Hoover issued a call in December, 1932, at the request of a number of interested organizations, for a Citizens' Conference on the Crisis in Education. The organizations concerned were: the American Council on Education, the American Farm Bureau Federation, the American Federation of Labor, the National Association of Manufacturers, and the National Grange. The conference convened on January 5 and 6, 1933. President Hoover's address in opening the first meeting was in part as follows:

This conference is unusual, in that it invites the co-operation of men of widely different points of view in the consideration of our school and tax system from the standpoint of maintaining the welfare of the children of today.

Our governmental forces have grown unevenly and along with our astounding national development. We are now forced to make decisions on the merits of the various expenditures. But in the rigid governmental economies that are requisite everywhere we must not encroach upon the schools or reduce the opportunity of the child through the school to develop adequate citizenship. There is no safety for our republic without the education of our youth. That is the first charge upon all citizens and local governments.

I have confidence that with adequate reduction of expenditures there can be ample amounts obtained from reasonable taxation to keep our school system intact and functioning satisfactorily. Those in charge of the schools must be willing to face conditions as they are, to co-operate in discarding all unnecessary expenditure, to analyze all procedures, and to carry forward on a solid basis of economy. But the schools must be carried on.

The conference adopted statements prepared by its committees. Several of the most important of these actions are as follows:

WHEREAS, The conference is informed that additional drastic cuts in budgets and salaries have been made during recent months, amounting in many localities to as much as 25 to 40 per cent, and that schools in a number of states and localities have been closed completely, thus depriving children of all educational opportunities; and

WHEREAS, Education is an important public function; and

WHEREAS, The loss of educational opportunity by youth is irreplaceable;

Therefore, Be it Resolved, That the educational service should be accorded a high degree of priority in determining the purposes and services which shall be supported by the states during a depression.

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The major wastes in education should be eliminated through the elimination of control and interference by politicians, of political appointments and of political corruption.

Local governments and local school districts should be reorganized and consolidated.

Administrative control of the schools must be centralized in the superintendent.

State administrative organization of education must be reorganized through the creation of a non-political and professional agency for the administration of the educational policies of the state.

The state must assume the responsibility within its means of assuring adequate public education to all local communities, irrespective of their financial condition.

All governments, local, state and national, must direct attention to the immediate reformation of the system of taxation.

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Immediate efforts should be made through the raising of the general level of commodity prices, the correction of serious economic maladjustments, and otherwise, to increase the volume of income and purchasing power, and thus to provide the moneys necessary for a proper educational program. If this is not done, widespread injury will result, not only to the cause of education, but to the value of all obligations, public and private.

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It is the judgment of this committee that it is possible, through such a financial system as will render all the wealth and income of the nation equitably liable to taxation, to provide for the proper support of the American plan of education in each of the states of the Union. This American plan is based upon the principle of an equality of opportunity for all youth to secure a complete education, and upon the continuance of appropriate instruction of those adult indi-

viduals and classes in need of effective adjustment to the changing economic and social conditions.

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Resolved That we urge the Congress to provide for federal assistance through emergency loans for a limited period to such states as may make an adequate showing of their inability to maintain reasonable standards of support for public-school education.

CRIPPLING OF THE FEDERAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION

Among the retrenchments which have been made in educational budgets, none is more serious than that which Congress approved as a part of the economy campaign of 1932 when it reduced the resources of the United States Office of Education by 36 per cent, that is, in a ratio far greater than the ratio by which it reduced other governmental services. The Office of Education has been compelled to abandon its national survey of educational finance, to reduce the scope of its survey of teacher training in the United States, and to give up its publication of lists of current writings in the field of education. The funds available for the publication of bulletins is reduced to the point where the preparation and distribution of information on national developments in education will be limited to the commissioner's reports and to a vanishingly small number of other documents.

The withdrawal of federal services at a time when the educational problems which confront the communities of the United States are more difficult of solution than they have ever been in the history of the nation shows how short-sighted is the American policy of dealing with schools. The fact is that schools are overcrowded with a rapidly increasing pupil population because children are excluded from industry; local school budgets are drastically reduced; legislatures are at a loss to devise wise legislation for public education. In spite of the urgent need of intelligence, the one source of comprehensive information regarding education is dried up for the reason that Congress is influenced by political considerations to maintain in full force other public services which have far less social significance than education.

The legislatures which convene in 1933 should have been supplied with the guidance which would have come from a national survey of

school finance. Fortunately, the General Education Board provided $25,000 to continue certain parts of the finance survey, but the main undertaking which depended on federal support had to be abandoned. Local school systems are in constant need of guidance. The policy of this country has been to leave the control of education almost entirely to local authorities. There is no such centralization of educational control as there is in other great civilizations. The United States Office of Education has rendered a national service which is indispensable if the scattered local authorities are to organize schools as they should. The curtailment of this essential service will have serious consequences.

THE CALIFORNIA SURVEY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

A notable document enunciating general principles in regard to the organization of state systems of public education was issued by the commission which carried on the survey of the university, teachers' colleges, and junior colleges of California under the chairmanship of Henry Suzzallo, president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. This document recognizes the fact that the primary function of a state system of public education is to provide a universal training for all the people of the state. It goes beyond many earlier pronouncements, however, and sets forth the contention that under modern conditions universal public education cannot stop with the elementary school. It states explicitly that provision for education through the junior college is a public obligation.

With respect to the curriculum of secondary schools, the report makes the following statement:

> The most significant body of psychological fact concerning human nature that has recently influenced our thinking or our action is that which reveals the astounding range of individual differences in a social or school population. People are not all alike. To believe they are and to treat them as though they were is to commit a grave human injustice to many individuals, and to deprive society of the use of their full powers. Social and educational justice is far more nearly realized by treating students differently than by treating them identically.
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> Differentiated treatment is necessary the moment individual differences begin to assert themselves in such a manner as to make inadequate the traditional curriculum and method of common schools. It may first express itself in allow-

ing or providing a different mode of approach to the study of the world and civilization.

Inability or lack of interest exhibited by a pupil demands a redirection of intellectual interest and provision for a shift of educational emphasis. A change of emphasis from the adacemic to other domains of arts, letters, or science, on the part of a student, often salvages a school career and acts as a spur to continuous learning. After some years of common schooling a considerable portion of students in compulsory attendance show a lapse of interest. The fact that such persons display limited ability in liberal studies may indicate that their chief powers lie in other directions than the purely literary or mathematical. Here arises the necessity for providing vocational courses of a quality and value equal to, and co-ordinate with, those of an academic nature. This situation involves growing numbers of cases as larger and larger groups of the population move through the school system toward the upper levels of common schooling. New intellectual opportunities and new opportunities for specialized, vocational training are then plainly indicated, the more so because little by little the school has been forced to assume responsibilities that the home and industry cannot or will not longer perform. But in all such cases the trade or industrial teacher still has the responsibility of socializing or civilizing the student through connecting in the fullest possible extent his vocational activity with the rest of civilized life. Sometimes late, sometimes early, the readjustment just implied takes place for every student.

The report advocates for the university above the junior college a curriculum designed to train for specialized professional callings, thus recognizing a distinction between general education and the lower forms of vocational education, on the one hand, and higher specialized professional education, on the other hand. A quotation which sets forth this contrast is as follows:

The main function of the university system.—It is the main function of the university system, which includes the upper divisions of colleges, the graduate schools, and the professional schools, to educate specialists for the strategically important social services which modern civilization requires, and to do this with full regard to the number of such specialists that society can utilize. Among the specialized callings for which the university system educates are research, teaching, the ministry, the law, medicine and surgery, engineering, and similar professions.

Provision for general education in the United States commonly closes at the end of the second college year, or at the end of the lower division or junior college. Certainly, it is a very general practice throughout the United States, particularly in most institutions west of the Appalachian Mountains, to begin scholarly concentration in the arts, sciences, and letters with the third (or junior) college year; that is, with the senior college proper, and to begin either

professional or specialized pre-professional education at the same stage in school progress. The exceptions, though conspicuous, merely accentuate the general trend of current practice.

AN EXPERIMENT WITH COLLEGE ADMISSIONS

A committee created by the Progressive Education Association has during the past year held a number of conferences with representatives of colleges in different parts of the United States at which a plan has been proposed for relaxation of college-entrance requirements. The plan contemplates the selection of a number of schools which shall be permitted, under the supervision of a committee including representatives of the schools and colleges, to undertake radical revisions of their curricula. The schools are to be allowed to recommend their graduates to the colleges, and the colleges are to receive these graduates even though their records do not include the courses which the colleges ordinarily require for admission.

The purposes which the Progressive Education Association wishes to promote by this plan are stated as follows:

> To this end we should like to provide, more fully than the present organization of the secondary school permits, for: (1) more continuity in learning, greater mastery in whatever fields of learning are undertaken; this includes: acquisition of effective techniques of study and of expression, capacity to see facts in their relationships, power to organize knowledge for a valid purpose, power and impetus to pursue learning beyond the limits of the "assignment"; (2) more chance for the release of creative energies; (3) more time and scope for pupils, with guidance, to develop their varied types of power and talent with the highest possible skill and seriously to pursue their special interests; and (4) more definite plans to help children to realize the interdependence and the interrelationships of human life and to develop a feeling for social responsibility.
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> We want to work toward a type of secondary education which will be flexible, responsive to changing needs, clearly based upon an understanding of characteristics of children between the ages of twelve and eighteen, as well as upon an understanding of the qualities needed in adult life.

A number of colleges have agreed to accept the plan, and a committee is now engaged in selecting the schools where experiments are to be organized.

SOCIAL STUDIES AND THE CURRICULUM

The American Historical Association has a Commission on Social Studies which is devising a program for schools which will make

pupils more intelligent on social problems than do the present school curricula. A first pronouncement has been issued by this commission indicating the kind of program which it will propose. This program is to take advantage of the ripest scholarship of the social sciences, is to recognize fully the rapidly changing character of modern civilization, and is to adapt its contents to the various stages of maturity of pupils at different levels in the schools.

The American Council on Education has a Committee on Materials of Instruction which has issued, with the co-operation of the Subcommittee on Political Education of the American Political Science Association, a series of brochures dealing with such fundamental social inventions as the alphabet, the number system, weights and measures, the calendar, telling time, and the rules of the road. These brochures do not aim so much at an exposition of changing civilization as they do at the cultivation on the part of young people of a recognition of the meaning of social co-operation. The great staples of civilization came into existence through long ages of human endeavor, and every school which teaches reading and the use of number takes advantage of the centuries of effort which went into the creation of the fundamentals of intellectual life. The American Council on Education will continue to issue material which is directly available for use in schools.

Other efforts are being made by individuals and school systems to bring into the curriculum what has been largely lacking in the past, namely, lessons on social problems. Some of the suggestions are radical, recommending to teachers that they direct the influence of the schools toward the setting-up of a new social order. Perhaps the most vigorous advocacy of reform of society through the schools is a publication by Professor George S. Counts which bears the title *Dare the School Build a New Social Order?*

Many school systems are publishing syllabi outlining studies in social institutions for all grades in the elementary school and the high school. There is promise in these various lines of activity that the school programs of American schools will very soon be reconstructed in such a way as to give social studies a central position rather than the marginal position which they have occupied up to this time.

EDUCATION IN FRANCE AND CHINA

France has taken another step in the direction of making secondary education free. Until 1930, the *lycées* required a payment of tuition from all students attending its classes. After a bitter political struggle in the Chamber of Deputies, the first year of the *lycée* was made free in 1930. In 1931, after a similar struggle, the second year was made free. In enacting the budget for 1932, the Chamber of Deputies made the third year free. This they did with little debate and almost as a matter of course. There are three more years to be considered and acted on before the whole *lycée* becomes in this respect fully democratized.

The League of Nations sent to China, at the request of the government of that country, a commission to recommend reorganizations to be undertaken in the educational system. The commission consisted of four members, all from European countries which are organized under highly centralized federal control of schools. The commission found that China has been greatly influenced in its recent efforts to develop a public-school system by the example of America. The commission expresses disapproval of this imitation of America. It argues that China should devise a system closely related to its own social history. In the course of its report, the commission gives expression to the curious contention that since China has an old civilization and Europe has an old civilization, the Chinese should study carefully the European pattern of education and should be influenced more by that pattern than by the institutions of youthful America. The commission urgently recommends that leading Chinese educators be sent to Europe at once to gain the benefit of contact with European schools and universities. The Chinese government has acted on this suggestion and has sent a group of educators to Europe. Whether they will be stimulated by this visit to adapt the schools of China to the peculiar demands of Chinese history remains to be seen.

A second source of great distress to the commission is the fact that Chinese students who have attended American universities and those who in their own country have heard lectures by American professors have shown a disposition to cultivate the science of education. The members of the commission evidently believe in organiz-

ing schools under strict supervision of governmental authori rather than under the guidance of scientific studies. It is proba impossible for anyone who has not participated in studies of kind now fortunately common in the United States to underst how federal authority can be dispensed with in favor of the princi derived from systematic studies of educational problems.

ADULT EDUCATION

The financial depression with its unemployment has affected ac education unfavorably in some communities because lack of fu has made it necessary to abandon night schools and other cen where educational opportunities were formerly offered to adults.

On the other hand, there are a number of places where effort provide education for older people have been redoubled courses of various kinds have been provided, especially for the employed.

The following reports are from three sections of the country.

From Seattle:

On the theory that conditions of unemployment such as exist and may tinue to exist through part or all of the coming winter present a challenge to cation, plans have been devised for afternoon classes for unemployed citizen be taught by public-school teachers who volunteer their services for this w The courses to be offered range from practical courses like gardening, home nomics, and shop work, to courses in literature, history, government, music, art.

The work is only made possible, according to Superintendent McCl through the generous giving by teachers and principals of their time and t services.

From Wisconsin:

The jobless young man just out of high school, without means of going o college, is having his needs met by Wisconsin's public-education system, w is making it possible for him to continue his studies in his home town. Tl sands of recent graduates of both sexes are being absorbed in the high sch vocational schools, and the university-extension division. One consequence is the minimizing of the number who take to the highways or endeavor to work in the big cities.

From New York City:

That the twenty-two New York City evening high schools, despite the tailments introduced in the interests of economy, are accommodating a re enrolment of 55,077 students this fall was disclosed in figures made public tc by Morris E. Siegel, director of evening schools. This, Mr. Siegel said, re sents an increase of 15,000 over last year, which is about twice the increa any previous year.

GOVERNMENT

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ABSTRACT

Different phases of the depression are the most striking features in the adjustment of governmental machinery and of governmental action for the year 1932. Overshadowing everything was the need for unemployment relief, but also acutely felt was the need for relief to financial and business organizations and to farmers. The year is notable as seeing the entry of the federal government into the emergency relief situation, aside from the emergency grants for roads which had been made for the previous year in the states, and its assumption of the principal burden in caring for relief to business and to agricultural debtors. In addition to the general reduction of budgets for ordinary expenses, there were several interesting methods adopted to provide for cuts in expenses and salaries.

Unemployment in 1931 had grown beyond the power of the local communities to deal with it. The states had been obliged to come to their aid, and state aid has implied a certain degree of state administration. This did not go to the extent of setting up a relief agency, but rather a state agency to carry on work relief, to allocate the state grant to local organizations, with power to lay down standards and regulations under which it should be distributed.

In 1932 unemployment needs overwhelmed the states, and the federal government recognized its responsibility by appropriating $300,000,000 (Public 302) which the Reconstruction Finance Corporation was directed to distribute to states and territories. Payments were to be made to the governors on application, within two years from the date of the passage of the act. The Corporation must consider the necessity and the inadequacy of the resources of the state or territory applying and only approve if there is a real need. Payments were made to the governor, but the money could be distributed among the political subdivisions, if the governor made a certificate of necessity in respect to a particular subdivision, and if it agreed to repay the advance to the Corporation. This grant is not a free gift on the part of the government; the money must be repaid at 3 per cent interest by deductions from future federal road aid grants, unless another means of repayment is provided for. An organization has been set up in the Corporation to advise in respect to the applications for relief. Thus the principle was preserved, in theory, that

the federal government would not give relief, but only lend to the needy states and localities. A free grant for direct relief, however, was made in kind by Public Resolutions 12 and 33 which gave to the Red Cross for distribution 85,000,000 bushels of wheat and 500,000,000 bales of cotton which had been acquired by the United States in its efforts to stabilize the market for agricultural commodities.

The problem of relief so far as the states are concerned is that of organizing the co-operation of state and local authorities under the general supervision of the state. Ohio, the only state which acted on a state-wide scale in 1932, by S.B. 1, created a State Relief Commission to serve till March 1, 1933, consisting of five representative citizens appointed by the governor without compensation, but with necessary expenses. State and local government departments and agencies were instructed to consult with the Commission, and it was given access to their records. Pennsylvania, No. 51, at its special session, took measures to prepare for the expenditure of federal monies. It created a State Emergency Relief Board of the governor, lieutenant governor, auditor general, state treasurer, and speaker of the House, to adopt a comprehensive program for the expenditure of money received from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Money received was to be deposited in a Federal Unemployment Relief Fund, held without restrictions applicable to ordinary state revenue. The governor is the administrative officer of the Board. The funds are to be expended by him under a system of administration which he is to establish under his direction and on his responsibility. The legislature instructed the Board, in its program of expenditure, to consider public works that might be constructed and the distribution of direct relief. Private agencies were to be recognized, and the part that they should play should be set forth in the state scheme. In distributing its money the Board should further local responsibility, as it was instructed, in making its plan of allocation among the counties, to take into consideration the needs of the community and the relief funds available from taxation and other sources in each community. The Board was also to co-ordinate relief work carried on by the governor with federal money and that provided for by state appropriations, so as to extend the available funds from all sources over the longest possible period of time.

New Jersey, chapter 215, strengthened its relief administration by permitting the director to require municipalities to pay part of the relief as a condition of granting state aid and to prescribe rules and conditions for the administration of the entire relief program where state funds are granted. New Jersey also recognizes the third factor in the trilogy of state, locality, and private aid by expressly authorizing grants to private agencies for emergency relief, under the condition that if a private agency accepts state funds it must submit to the conditions prescribed by the director for the administration of relief, including relief paid for by funds raised from private sources as well as from the state contribution. A similar power, given to the Wisconsin Commission, to give state funds to a private agency has been sustained by the Supreme Court of that state.[1]

Virginia did not develop an extensive public work emergency program, but it authorized, by chapter 235, the State Highway Commission to determine "whenever and wherein" there is an unemployed surplus of citizens. When it has located the surplus, the Commission shall employ them on highways "whenever and wherever" the Commission judges that they "may be efficiently employed in connection therewith." The action of the Commission must, of course, be affected by the amount of money which it has on hand with which to pay the wages of the persons it employs. Whether in the long run the State Highway Commission will prove an appropriate body to administer work relief, including the difficult job of determining who is unemployed and who should have the relief, may be open to question.

Ohio, S.B. 2, recognizes a special form of the distress coming from unemployment and authorizes boards of education up to December 31, 1933, to provide necessaries for needy children, if satisfied that the children are unable to attend school because of want. The relief commissioner must allocate funds for relief if the Board has not money in its hands sufficient to take care of the children.

The legislatures were faced with the necessity of providing for heavy expenses outside of their ordinary budgets to take care of the unemployment caused by the emergency. Except so far as funds might be received from the federal government, it is obvious that

[1] *State* v. *Industrial Commission* (1932) 207 Wis. 652.

this expense could only be met by economy or by borrowing or some form of taxation which would yield an immediate revenue. This was true whether the state contributed to the relief or whether the local authorities should bear all or part of the burden from their tax on credit resources. Expense of government could not be cut sufficiently to provide for the emergency out of the diminished state or local revenues; so taxation or borrowing became a necessity. Unemployment relief is a current expenditure, such an expenditure as should ordinarily be covered out of current tax income; but on the other hand it was argued that the need for relief will be short-lived, so that it would be justifiable to issue bonds to provide the money immediately needed and to trust to the prosperous years ahead for surpluses of revenue with which to pay them.

Many of the legislatures made a valiant effort to meet all or part of the cost of relief by tax. Arizona, chapter 9, laid an emergency tax on stores in the form of an annual license fee to provide funds to relieve unemployment. Wisconsin, chapter 29, selects income taxpayers and chain stores to help out in the emergency, but holds out a hope of tempering the income tax increase by providing that it shall be reduced in proportion to the payments made to the state by the United States government for relief. The money coming from these two imposts is appropriated for grants to counties for outdoor relief and for the cost of labor used upon relief works. The Conservation Commission is to spend $500,000 of the relief fund for fire protection work. Pennsylvania, No. 53, imposes a sales tax of 1 per cent on the gross income from sales of tangible personal property for a six months' period, to pay the appropriations for unemployment relief. The Ohio legislature lays its hands on the gas and motor vehicle taxes, sacred to road building, as one way out of meeting the expense of unemployment. By S.B. 3 it permits cities and counties to use all or any part of the gas or motor vehicle taxes apportioned to them for poor relief, if the State Relief Commission gives its consent. However, there must be a public hearing by the local authorities before action is taken to determine whether the sentiment of the community will permit the turning aside of this money from road construction to poor relief. The act is in effect till March, 1933. The same state has an interesting plan in S.B. 4 by which it provides

funds for poor relief through the issue of bonds by counties and cities during the fiscal year. Control is kept over the localities through the requirement of approval of the State Relief Commission and the Tax Commission. A special tax for a short period of years is laid on certain utilities to provide a fund for meeting these bonds. The tax is collected by the state, held in a special fund in the state treasury, and allocated among the counties. It is the duty of the Tax Commission to see to it that no county shall issue bonds in excess of an amount which will be made by the estimated payments to it from this tax.

Illinois, page 203, also dips its bucket into the motor vehicle and gasoline taxes by authorizing payment from them of unemployment relief bonds issued by the legislature, in addition to two serious attempts to raise the money by immediate taxation. Page 202 taxes all assessable property in an amount of $25,000,000 for emergency relief funds. The governor, auditor, and state treasurer are authorized to compute the rate required to produce the sum, and the auditor shall then notify the county tax collectors. Page 21 laid a progressive income tax for unemployment relief, but the act was held invalid under the state constitution.[2] New Jersey, chapter 251, authorized, and the people approved, a debt of $20,000,000 for the relief of unemployment, falling back, as have so many other states, on the tax on motor vehicle fuels to pay it. If that be insufficient, then a special tax is to be laid on real and personal property. The funds are to be used only for unemployment relief and are to be disbursed on the order of the state director. Thus, as in Ohio, the expense for one year was met by bonds and paid from a specified tax over eight years, as the bonds must be serial, payable, the first in three, the last in eight, years. The same state, chapter 172, unites relief and economy by deducting a certain percentage from the compensation of all officers or employees of the state running up to 10 per cent where the compensation exceeds $4,500, and pays the money into the State Emergency Relief Fund.

Pennsylvania, No. 52, makes a $12,000,000 appropriation to the State Relief Board to be allocated to the counties in the ratio that the total unemployed in the county bears to the total unemployed

[2] *Bachrach* v. *Nelson* (1932), 349 Ill. 579.

in the commonwealth. The money may be used for either work or direct relief as determined by the State Board. Direct relief may be expended by either public or private agencies as the Board decides.

Two widely separated states recognized the local phase of the emergency by authorizing local taxes. Louisiana, chapter 138, allows certain parishes and municipalities to raise money for unemployment relief by taxing places of amusement or entertainment in an amount of not over 10 per cent of admissions but not on admissions of 10 cents or less. The local authority may fix the tax only after it has declared that an emergency exists, after a hearing and for a period of not over two years. Rhode Island, chapter 1919, authorizes towns to levy all or any of a number of specified taxes to provide for unemployment relief. The taxes may be on intangible personal property and a small tax on paid admissions of over 50 cents, for meals served in public places, or telephone calls, or electricity. The service taxes are to be paid by the person giving the service, but may be included in the bill. The act permits the towns to issue notes for unemployment relief which will form a first charge on the avails of these taxes. The act also permits towns to sell serial bonds running for not more than ten years to pay loans from the state for unemployment relief and appropriates $1,000,000 from the highway fund to buy the notes of towns issued under the act. A highway appropriation previously made is reduced by $1,000,000, evidently to meet this need.

The federal government led in the field of emergency business relief. Public No. 2, creating the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, is a formidable extension of government in the business of lending money. The Corporation was created only for a short time. Loans after January 22, 1933, were not permitted but the President has extended the time for a year under power granted him by the Act.

The directors of the Corporation are the Secretary of the Treasury, the Governor of the Federal Reserve Board, the Farm Loan Commissioner, and four persons appointed by the President and Senate for two-year terms, not more than one from any Federal Reserve District. The Corporation was created to make short-term loans to aid in financing agriculture, commerce, industry, and the railways. It makes loans to corporations, particularly to banks and railways,

but it also is permitted to finance export, especially of agricultural products. The loans are to be fully secured and must be repaid. The act was extended by Public 302 to permit loans to finance self-liquidating projects by states and certain public utilities, or projects for housing or the development of forests and other renewable and natural resources. Its finances come from federal purchase of stock and from bonds.

Public No. 3 made an appropriation to buy stock in the Federal Land Banks to strengthen their resources, so that they could carry out the injunction of Congress to extend debts due by the farmer borrowers. Public 304 was intended to help the owners of homes with their mortgages. It created a Federal Home Mortgage Discount Bank system under an appointed board. The country was divided into districts, each with a regional bank of which financial institutions loaning money on homes could become members. Members of these banks were permitted to borrow through the regional bank from the central fund to aid them in carrying their mortgages, so that they could ease the pressure on borrowers. Massachusetts, chapter 44, incorporated a Mutual Savings Central Fund to which mutual savings banks must contribute not over 37 per cent of their capital, and which is managed by a board chosen by member banks by geographical districts. The Fund aids members by loans secured by mortgage. A co-operative central bank is set up, chapter 45, to perform the same service for co-operative banks.

The federal government moved to secure a reduction of expenditures through the Economy Act, Public 212, Part 2. An obligatory furlough without pay was ordered for all federal officers and employees receiving between $1,000 and $10,000, working out to a reduction in salary of approximately 8⅓ per cent. Persons not affected by the furlough had a direct cut of 8⅓ per cent, with greater reductions for salaries over $10,000. Automatic increases in pay and promotions were stopped. The share-the-work notion appeared in a section providing that where personnel reductions are necessary a married person is the first to go, if the other spouse is employed by the government, and preference in new appointments must be given to persons whose spouses are not employees of the United States. Leaves with pay are prohibited in 1933. The President was granted

power to reorganize the Executive Branch according to functions, and to consolidate the services on functional lines. He could not, however, take definite action, but could only make recommendations to Congress, which may disapprove his plans.

In addition to the reduction of appropriations, several states have devised interesting ways of administering in detail the reduction in salaries made necessary by the depression. Indiana, chapter 70, cuts the pay of officers of the state and municipal subdivisions by a formula which graduates the reduction sharply according to salary so that the reduction from a high salary is much more than that from a low salary. Indiana evidently hopes that the depression will be temporary, as the act expires on January 1, 1934. The act modifies the federal application of the spread-the-work idea in forbidding the employment in the state government of two or more persons "who are members of the same family and who are domiciled in the same home." New Jersey has a different application of "share-the-work." The governor, chapter 190, and the superintendent of state police, chapter 216, are instructed to reduce personnel temporarily and, in order to keep as many people employed as possible, to stagger the employees where it can be done. The law maintains the pension rights of persons dropped and requires that they be registered and taken on again as soon as possible. They maintain their civil service status and are not required to take new examinations.

Not satisfied with appropriation reductions, New Jersey, chapter 189, and Wisconsin, chapter 30, make special provision for further cuts if the necessity develops. New Jersey vests the power in the governor, who may direct the state treasurer, in writing, to withhold expenditure of all or part of an appropriation, including even revenues dedicated to the highway fund. The Act was passed in 1932 and expires July 1, 1933; so the present legislature will have a chance to see whether it wants to continue this extraordinary power. Wisconsin was not willing to trust the governor alone, but authorized the Emergency Board to make such cuts during the fiscal years ending June 30, 1932, and June 30, 1933, by such amounts, not exceeding 20 per cent, as are necessary to assure "sound financial operation of the government" and still continue the work of the state in an efficient manner. They are not given power to reduce the salaries of state

employees receiving less than $2,000, or to increase their hours of labor, and no reduction may be made until an opportunity to be heard is given to the department or association to which the appropriation was made.

The legislatures which met in regular session in 1932 enacted the usual grist of repairs to the administrative machinery of the state. Georgia, page 7, remodeled her government along modern lines. The reorganization in general followed the line of consolidation of departments under individual heads of departments appointed by the governor, but the board principle was retained to control certain state functions. A notable case is the Revenue Commission which is composed of the comptroller-general and two salaried commissioners, appointed by the governor and Senate, to have power over taxes. It is questionable whether the administration of a function like the Department of Industrial Relations was wisely placed in a salaried commission of three, the chairman elected by the people and the other two appointed by the governor for four-year terms, one of the two to represent labor.

An interesting case of centralization of functions under the state is Virginia, chapter 415, which creates a system of secondary roads, including those roads which are not in the state highway system. The secondary system is put under the control of the state department of highways, but local influence is preserved in an interesting way by the power of the supervisors to make recommendations after consultation with citizens and members of the department at a public meeting. A county may retain control of its roads by a vote of its electors. The state system will be paid for by the state, but if a county remains out of the system it will continue to get its share of the gasoline tax, though not of any other state money.

The executive budget is making progress. Mississippi, chapter 120, established a budget commission of which the governor is ex-officio director and the chairman of the State Tax Commission, assistant director. No separate force is provided, but the assistant director is to prepare the budget with the help of the employees of the Executive Department and of his own office. To facilitate his work he is directed to visit all the state offices and institutions which must file monthly reports with him. The governor may authorize exceed-

ing an appropriation in case of emergencies and for a definite time. The Appropriations Committee of each House must sit jointly in considering the budget, and no special appropriations shall be considered until the budget has been acted on. The Missouri electors also approved an amendment of their constitution to establish an executive budget. Georgia voters approved a constitutional amendment for a split session of the legislature. The first session meets the second Monday in January for ten days, the second on the second Monday after the Fourth of July, for not longer than sixty days, unless at the January session an earlier date has been fixed by both Houses with the governor's approval. The first session is for the organization of the legislature, introduction of bills, and the inauguration of the new state officers. New Mexico voters adopted another method of regulating their legislatures by limiting the introduction of bills to the first forty-five days of the sixty-day session.